# The Nation.

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## The Week.

Who would suppose, from the tone of the American press, or even from the tenor of the communications of the Administration to the Vatican, that the Philippine friars had a shadow of legal right behind them? "The Friars Must Go," is the current cry; yet it is in direct disregard of the most solemn treaty obligations assumed by this Government. The second paragraph of Article VIII. of the Treaty of Paris reads:

> "And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, *ecclesiastical* or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be."

Now it is to that clause that the Philippine friars, and their protectors in Rome, are entitled to point and say, "We stand upon the law." The holdings of the friars come distinctly under the provisions of the treaty. They are plainly property of the sort which we have pledged ourselves to allow no man to "impair." Yet when its owners come to the American authorities in Manila and in Washington and demand that they be reinstated in "the peaceful possession of their property," the answer they get is, "Not at all. You must go." Indeed, Secretary Root declares that the United States "cannot permit" the reinstatement of the friars in their property. We vowed we would do it; now we say that we shall not allow it. The negotiations are broken off for the present, as it was inevitable they should be, considering the temper in which they were undertaken. The *Tribune*, however, assures us that it "is not for a moment to be conceded" that Secretary Root's diplomacy has been "defeated." To prove the case up to the hilt, it prints the pictures of two of the three Cardinals who "are held responsible for the failure of negotiations over the friars' lands."

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President Roosevelt is in luck to have received Senator McLaurin's declination of a proffered United States judgeship. The Court of Claims is one requiring a high grade of judges, adequate to the important questions brought before them, and to the serious responsibilities which they have to sustain; and the retiring Senator from South Carolina has impressed no one, unless it be the President, with his qualifications for that bench. His refusal to accept a seat on it, in view of the charge made against him that he was selling his party allegiance for that reward, betrays more delicacy on his part than we can think the President displayed in offering him the appointment. Mr. Roosevelt is reported to have said that he desired to give McLaurin "some place," not as a reward for his support of the Administration, but as a recognition of his "proving that a Southern man may fight in the Northern ranks of a reunited people." That elegant phrase is only another way of saying that McLaurin became to all intents and purposes a Republican. For that he may have deserved gratitude and a reward, but some other than a judicial appointment should have been found for him. The President cannot use judgeships to pay party debts without injuring both his own prestige and that of the judges. He will probably have many important judicial vacancies to fill; and it is fortunate that he has been saved from the blunder of naming so unfit a man as McLaurin for the first one.

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Representative Chester T. Long of Kansas was never much known outside his State until he came into prominence as an earnest advocate of Cuban reciprocity in the Ways and Means Committee, and as the zealous supporter of Mr. Roosevelt's policy on this question when the Kansas Republicans, a few weeks ago, had to decide between the President and Senator Burton, one of the "insurgents." Since this episode Mr. Long has come to be a considerable figure in national politics, and he proves to have an interesting personality. He recognizes that reciprocity with Cuba is the great issue in his State, and he delivered a speech on the subject before the Chautauqua Assembly at Ottawa, Kan., last week, which was a fine specimen of vigorous and courageous argument. He first showed that such reciprocity as Mr. Roosevelt has urged is consistent with Republican doctrine, and then demonstrated that nobody in this country could be harmed by it—not even the farmers who raise beets to be converted into sugar—since the price of sugar, and consequently of beets, would not be affected by the proposed reduction of the duty on Cuban sugar. But the strongest part of the speech was Mr. Long's insistence upon the moral aspects of the question, growing out of our special duty to Cuba and our special pledges to her.

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Wisconsin Republicans have for two years been involved in a factional controversy of the utmost bitterness. Robert M. La Follette, an ambitious and forceful politician, who appears to be a man of much the same type as the late Hazen S. Pingree in Michigan, and, like him, is considered by many a thorough-going demagogue, succeeded in securing the nomination for Governor in 1900. He was elected by a majority which attested his personal popularity, for his vote fell only 1,447 short of that polled for McKinley, who was supported, on the issue of opposition to Bryanism, by many thousand Democrats in a State long distinguished for its earnest adherence to sound money. La Follette had made his campaign chiefly on the promise of reform, both in the method of making nominations and in the matter of taxing corporations. His Republican opponents had sufficient influence in the Legislature to thwart the full accomplishment of his purposes, and the Governor therefore sought a second term upon the same issues. The "Stalwarts," as his opponents have often been styled, fought him with the utmost vigor in the caucuses, but they were overwhelmingly defeated, La Follette securing fully two-thirds of the delegates to the convention which met last week.

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Chance gives a national bearing to one feature of this year's State election in Wisconsin. The Legislature which is to be chosen in November must elect a United States Senator, as Mr. Spooner's term will expire next March. The Senator has been busily engaged in his duties at Washington through nearly the whole of the contest in the primaries, and he had held aloof, so far as the public was informed, from the previous dispute between the factions. But he is hated bitterly by La Follette, and his closest friends have been among the older party leaders whom the Governor has pushed aside. The mass of Republicans admire the Senator's ability, and desire his continuance in the public service, but the La Follette managers in the convention insisted upon conditioning their support on his endorsement of the La Follette platform which had been adopted. So far as its chief planks are concerned—"the equal and uniform taxation of all taxable property," and the nomination of all candidates at a primary election on a certain day by direct vote under the Australian system—it is hard to see why Mr. Spooner should not accept them, as the "Stalwarts" generally must do, unless they are prepared to bolt on seemingly insufficient grounds. The resolution adopted truthfully declares that Mr. Spooner "has become recognized as the leader of the United States Senate," and in ordinary circumstances it would be a national misfortune if a public man of such standing should be forced out of Congress by a factional controversy in his State. Posterity, however, reviewing Senator Spooner's

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rôle in our Imperial rake's progress—that of apologist, against his own better judgment, salver of the public conscience, and adroit legislative draughtsman—may see in his retirement only the poetic justice which is sure to relegate many of his Jingo associates to obscurity.

We can but admire the strategy which Chairman Babcock announces for the conduct of the Republican campaign. He is going to have no "literature" this year. The ordinary "campaign handbook" would, indeed, tax the skill of the compiler, for an election in which different sections of the party are at swords' points over the true policy to be advocated. As Mr. Babcock astutely observes, "The people are tired of literature, and want a change." He is going to give it to them in the shape of an unprecedented outflow of oratory. A perfect "firing line" of Republican stump-speakers is to traverse the country. They may fire at each other, very likely, but anyhow they will keep up a tremendous volleying. That is the main thing. Agreement on the real objective is only a bookish way of making political war. Mr. Babcock himself will denounce the high tariff which shelters Trusts, and Congressman Payne will propose to shoot on the spot any man who lays a sacrilegious hand upon one of its schedules; Representative Long will make Kansas ring with his clamorous demands for Cuban reciprocity, and Mr. Tawney of Minnesota will declare that policy no better than treachery. This is a somewhat obvious inconsistency, but, bless your simple heart, the object of a political party is not to be consistent, but to win the elections. As the *Sun* solemnly puts it, the duty of the hour is to "rebuke" the faithless Republican party, "provided the spirit of vengeance goes no further." That is to say, we must be very angry with our betrayers, but must be sure to send back to Congress enough quarrelling Republicans to betray us again. To this end, Chairman Babcock's plan of go-as-you-please bushwhacking, without concert and without responsibility, seems beautifully adapted.

The action of the bituminous miners' convention at Indianapolis last week is one of the most gratifying developments of the time. It was possible for the miners to have simply said, We will force a sympathetic strike, or, We will not; and let the matter go at that. Such action would have left the decision merely a matter of expediency; and, in fact, it is the question of expediency which has been most actively discussed in the preliminaries of the convention. The favorite argument of miners who opposed in advance a strike by the soft-coal men, has been that such a strike, with the resultant loss of wages, would deprive the hard-coal miners of the financial assistance which they might otherwise expect. Fortunately, the miners at Indianapolis do not rest their decision on any such narrow grounds. Their decision not to strike is clearly based on the fact that a strike would violate contracts with their employers. The bituminous union has agreed on the wage schedule for the year; it has signed, in behalf of its constituents, an agreement to recognize that schedule during the next twelve months. There have not been lacking hot-headed labor leaders to plead for disregard of contracts, and to raise again the cry of "My Union, right or wrong." But the convention is a deliberative body. It has heard some plain truths, and acted on them intelligently.

Mr. Mitchell put the case of the conservative party, in his reference to the dangerous effects of contract violation. It must be said that the view of contracts presented in his speech was a little naïve. To say that, "though a temporary advantage may be gained by violating contracts, it will certainly lead in the end to disaster," is, to say the least, a somewhat unconventional way of discussing the contract question. But Mr. Mitchell doubtless knew his men, and acted accordingly. Unions have not been noted for accepting the view of contracts which will be found in treatises on law or in a merchant's code of ethics, and it was perhaps diplomatic to waive the question of the organization's honor and to argue solely from the laborer's personal interest. And, from that point of view, there can be no doubt of the soundness of Mr. Mitchell's argument. If the members of a union will not keep the contracts signed by its officers in the laborers' behalf, then it is clearly foolish for the employers to sign such contracts. But if employers were to refuse to sign, then the laborer is at once back where he stood a generation ago. It has never been alleged that the companies repudiate their side of the contract. But they could hardly afford to continue making pledges of wages for the year if the *quid pro quo* were to depend merely on the whim of the other signatory. Mr. Mitchell's address went considerably beyond even this appeal for contract observance. He took up the whole question of sympathetic strikes, and had some very forcible comments to make upon them. He plainly said that "sympathy strikes" result invariably in failure for the men who participate in them, and that the proposition for such a strike to-day is a mistake.

It is now several weeks since it was declared, in behalf of the anthracite operators, that they could man their mines on a day's notice if they were to give work to strikers who were anxious to return. This statement was either correct or incorrect. If it was incorrect, the public view ought to be promptly set right by a trustworthy explanation. If it was correct, then we are wholly at loss to understand what the operators mean by their present attitude. It is true enough that the public has suffered less from the deadlock at the mines than had been expected—apparently because a mysterious reserved stock of anthracite has been fed out by somebody to the market after prices had been forced to the maximum. But the *Engineering and Mining Journal* of last Saturday, after remarking that the regular July price for coal at New York is $4.05 to $4.30, adds that "what coal is picked up outside of that still supplied to certain old customers, changes hands at $7 to $8 per ton." Whether the coal which is being quietly put out, at these extortionate prices, comes at first hand from the operators, or from speculating intermediaries, we do not know, and it does not greatly affect the merits of the question. In either case, a wrong is being done to whatever people have to buy the coal, and is done without excuse, unless—and this the operators themselves do not assert—it is impossible to start up mining.

In a recent article in the Chicago *Record-Herald*, President J. G. Merrill of Fisk University calls attention to the growing need of trained negro physicians and ministers. In many parts of the South the colored man has quite outgrown the old type of negro preacher, and there are no places where he does not need in his pastor a social guide and educator ready to direct the forward movement of the race. It is not generally known in the North that Southern white ministers, at least in many sections, decline to even marry negroes. In one case of which we know, a negro couple desirous of marrying in an Episcopal church were able to do so only by passing themselves off for white persons after a long journey to a city in which they were not known. The negro doctor, as President Merrill points out, has "an amazing opportunity" among the eight millions of his race, inasmuch as the black man turns to a physician of his own color as readily as the white physician in the South turns away from colored patients whenever he can honorably do so. President Merrill was able to tell of the success of twelve negro doctors in Nashville, all doing well financially, and half of them amassing property. He reports also that it is easier for a colored physician to build up a self-supporting practice than for the white doctor. The necessity of good medical schools for negroes should be plain to all, even to those who doubt the wisdom of higher education in the classics and natural sciences. New York city would be benefited if there were several hundred competent and professionally high-minded colored doctors within its limits to do missionary

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work in its terribly degraded "colored quarters."

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The formation of a large real-estate and building corporation, with a capital of $60,000,000, is, of course, in accordance with the economic tendencies of the time. It is merely an extension of the modern idea of combination to the industry of building and the management of real estate. The organization of the new "Realty Trust," too, so far as its details are known, presents many points of contact with other recent large flotations. The new corporation will acquire the holdings of several large corporations already in existence, giving in return its own shares; and it may be taken for granted that the properties thus purchased will be put in at a generous advance over their present valuation. This, it will hardly be denied, is pretty high, for the large realty corporations, in their recent purchases, have bid up prices so far that many of the stiffest property-holders have taken advantage of the opportunity to sell. It may be assumed, therefore, that not more than one-half of the $60,000,000 capitalization, at the most, will represent actual assets. Neither is it to be feared that the new combination is likely to monopolize the field. The choicest parcels of Manhattan realty are already owned by powerful families and estates, and are practically out of the market. It is little less than a religion with these families—the Astors, for example—never to sell. It is inconceivable, therefore, that the new Trust will unfavorably affect the public in the way of advancing rents. Competition, especially in the provision of office and high-class apartment accommodations, will practically be as keen as before.

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The public is interested in the combination, however, from a very different standpoint. It means, in a word, the opening up of an entirely new field of investment. Hitherto the investor who cared to put his surplus cash into real estate has been limited to the actual ownership of property, or, secondarily, to investments in bonds and mortgage. But the value of centrally located Manhattan realty has so advanced in the course of the last fifteen or twenty years that its actual ownership is limited to a very small percentage of the public. A down-town office building, for example, one of the properties which the Trust will absorb, represents invested capital of $7,500,000; a new hotel, planned for the Plaza site, will cost in the neighborhood of $10,000,000. It is evident that for financial undertakings of this kind a different form of organization is required from that which prevailed in the days when Wall Street lots sold for $1,000 or less. To meet this want the new realty combination is formed. That it supplies a genuine need, therefore, is plain at a glance. That Manhattan real estate, ably and conservatively managed, is as good an asset for a dividend-paying corporation as steel or gas or railroads, must also be admitted. Whether the new corporation fails or succeeds, therefore, will depend entirely upon the way it is conducted. The idea, though novel, is economically sound.

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Russia's reported suggestion of an international congress to deal with Trusts has that strange air of a union of self-seeking and of universal if somewhat dreamy benevolence which has marked other Russian proposals, of late years. Cynics will at once say that Russia wants in some way to avoid having her sugar exports penalized, as they now are in this country, for being aided by an indirect bounty. Others will see in the Russian Government's invitation to the nations to meet for discussion of great combinations of capital only one more sign of the European dread of "the American peril." In particular, it will be said, Russia fears American competition in China, even in Mantchuria, which she has marked for her own, and is plotting in this way to retain her markets for herself while winning a better chance to compete under the system of the open door in the Orient. All these things may be alleged, and may be true; yet our exporters will do well to note the alternative which M. Witte holds up. Failing an international agreement, says the St. Petersburg *Financial Messenger*, "there is but one remedy, namely, increased customs duties." In other words, that staff of protection on which American exporting Trusts lean at home, may be as a sword levelled at them abroad.

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In the idea itself of an international congress on Trusts there is something alluring. Nor does the movement for calling one come badly from the Czar Disarmer. A reason frequently given for the maintenance of swollen armaments is the trade rivalry of the leading nations. Cobden saw and declared, even in his time, that "the cry for new markets might become as mischievous as the old cry for extended dominion," and that jealousies about trade might lead to war as directly as disputes about territory. There is no doubt, therefore, that if the nations could make an amicable agreement covering international trade, the chances of general disarming would be greatly brightened. As for the necessity of common action, that is not at present clear; nor is it easy to see what effective plan of repressing the international ill effects of Trusts could be devised. Yet even if the project is only a dream, as yet, we must not forget that the dreams of one generation are often the realities of the next. The Common Law has long aimed its weapons at regrating and monopoly; who knows that some sort of international statute against internationally operative Trusts may not hereafter find a place in the *jus gentium*?

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In view of the German Emperor's recent speech against excessive drinking, made at Bonn before his old college corps, the Borussia, it is interesting to note that the Prussian Landtag recently adopted a measure which is also aimed at wholesale drinking. Incidentally it attempts to limit the sale of liquor during church hours on Sunday. Thus, while many New Yorkers favor opening the saloons on the day of rest, the Prussians are working towards a limitation of Sunday selling. There is, of course, no thought of stopping the whole liquor business on the Sabbath, but the action of the Landtag is one of a number of signs that thoughtful Germans have taken alarm at the constant drinking, by which thousands of people, if not drunk, are always more or less under the influence of alcohol. Naturally, the movement to restrict Sunday liquor-selling is meeting with much opposition. Even so high-minded a newspaper as the Berlin *Tageblatt* raises the familiar cry that to close the saloons on Sunday morning would infringe upon the citizen's liberty. There will be much more agreement on the necessity of putting an end to the bestial drinking at the German universities. For his outspoken language about this unmitigated evil the Emperor deserves all praise. So does the Crown Prince's refusal, since his imperial father's speech, to conform to the Borussia's drinking requirements—an action hitherto involving social ostracism for one not born to the purple.

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A single administrative order of Premier Combes's is to close 2,500 Roman Catholic schools in France, throwing out of employment 6,000 masters, and leaving 150,000 children to be otherwise provided for. M. Waldeck-Rousseau would have been content to leave the Associations Law as an official expression of opinion, useful chiefly as a general reprimand to the contumacious orders, but available, on occasion, for the exemplary repression of any particularly obnoxious body. Premier Combes apparently means to enforce it as literally as if it were the tax on doors and windows. Without going into the casuistry of these two attitudes towards the Associations Law, it is plain enough that M. Waldeck-Rousseau's mild *in terrorem* policy tended to keep the Catholics loyal, while Premier Combes is apparently studying the methods of making the Catholics his enemies. One must recall that these Roman Catholic schools are among the best in France—that they are preferred to the Government schools by the wealthy and aristocratic classes generally—to appreciate the odium that the new Ministry is deliberately incurring.

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*AN APPEAL TO THE PEOPLE.*

From Lincoln, Neb., comes the interesting news that the Republican State Committee, at its meeting on Thursday, "turned down" Senator Dietrich, one of the beet-sugar insurgents. Mr. Dietrich and his colleague, Mr. Millard, who stood with him on the issue of Cuban reciprocity, had already tried to persuade the party managers in their State that they could help in the campaign as much as though they had supported the President and the majority of Republican Congressmen on this question, but they had been given to understand that their services were not desired. Mr. Dietrich was unwilling to accept the rebuff, and made a personal appeal to the State Committee, only to find that body unanimous in sustaining the President, and in feeling that a Senator who had tried to thwart him could not render any assistance on the stump.

The Republicans of Kansas have been quite as frank and united in their rebuke of Senator Burton, another of the "insurgents," and in their endorsement of Representative Long, the member of the Ways and Means Committee who from the very first earnestly supported the policy of Cuban reciprocity. Mr. Burton recently made a long and labored attempt to justify his course, but even before he delivered this speech he had found party sentiment so generally against him that he did not dare to maintain an uncompromising attitude. He therefore followed his attempt at justification of his past conduct with the announcement that he would cheerfully turn around and support reciprocity if his constituents should say that he ought. He soon found out what they thought. His home is in the Fifth Congressional District, and the Republicans of Riley County, in that district, held their convention a few days ago. They adopted a resolution which heartily approved President Roosevelt's course in general; particularly endorsed "his unflinching demand for an honorable discharge of the pledges made to the Cuban republic, and for such generous treatment of that country through reciprocal trade arrangements as shall provide relief during its period of recuperation and at the same time bring great commercial advantages to the United States"; and then added:

> "And whereas Senator Burton has requested the people to advise him as to their wishes, now, therefore, be it resolved: That we demand of Senator Burton, whose home is in this district, to vote for and stand by the reciprocity policy of President Roosevelt."

Meanwhile Representative Long wins everywhere in his district the warmest praise for the struggle he made while Congress was in session, and for his determination to keep up the fight until it shall be won. A meeting of the Republican Congressional Committee in his district was held, the other day, at which he outlined his plan of campaign. Mr. Long referred to the unequivocal declaration in favor of reciprocity made by the State convention of the party, said that his canvass would be made squarely on that platform, and added that "there will be no faltering, no equivocation, no hesitation." Mr. Long quoted the President's speech at Pittsburgh on the Fourth of July, in which he declared that "reciprocity is as sure as fate," announced his own agreement with this view, and expressed this sound philosophy as to party action: "If the Republican party confesses that reciprocity is too big a question for it to settle, it will matter little who is the candidate in 1904. The Republican party is a party of action, and it will remain in power only as long as it is able to perform."

The Minnesota Senators and Representatives who opposed reciprocity find their constituents as unresponsive to their apologies as the people of Kansas to Mr. Burton and those of Nebraska to Messrs. Dietrich and Millard. Senator Nelson, Representative Tawney, and the other Minnesota "insurgents" in Congress persuaded the party managers to "let them down easy" by putting a facing-both-ways resolution in the platform adopted by the State Convention, but this device has not helped their case at all. The present situation is accurately summed up by the Minneapolis *Journal*, one of the chief Republican newspapers, which declares that the recalcitrants "find themselves without any real support at home." Senator Nelson, Representative Tawney, and the rest supposed that they would be endorsed because they professed to be standing up for the local interest of beet-sugar making, but the *Journal* says that "the people of the State have risen above the narrow sectional view of this question, and viewed it in the light of National policy and duty."

In these developments there is great ground for encouragement to all who believe that the American people will always rise to a moral issue when it is clearly presented. President Roosevelt should learn from the quick and general response of the Republican masses to his appeal for support against perfidious Senators and Representatives that the next time he may "strike when the iron is hot," as it was in this matter by the end of last February, with entire assurance that the people will sustain him and force their unfaithful servants in the Capitol to recant and to discharge national obligations without delay.

*REDEEMING THE AMERICAN NAME.*

Whatever criticisms the future historian may find himself compelled to pass upon the Administration of Theodore Roosevelt, he will be able to cite the President's decision in the case of Gen. Jacob H. Smith as an example of a just and high-minded action, and as a manly blow for the honor of the army and the nation. He will be able to show that the President's decision was not only unexpected by his party associates, but unwelcome to many of them, and that it was rendered at the risk of making himself unpopular with the managers of his party as well as with the army. Editors, generals, and Senators had been apologizing for a method of campaigning in our island possessions which would have received universal condemnation had it been used by Filipinos or Chinese Boxers. It was charged that the Opposition was seeking to dishonor the army and the country; that instead of upholding the men facing the bullets, the critics at home were firing upon them from the rear. There was the excuse apologetic, the excuse denunciatory, and the defence absolute. In behalf of a few uniformed offenders, war was given even a blacker name than heretofore, by the side of which Gen. Gordon's definition of it as "organized cruelty, pillage, and murder" paled. Our military heroes of bygone conflicts were dragged out—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, even Washington—and their worst deeds retold to defend a "Hell-Roaring Jake," a murderous Waller, and a torturing Glenn. There were plenty of signs of a fetish worship of the army.

Fortunately, the President of the United States, himself a soldier, remained unaffected by the clamor and confusion of the demagogues about him. He forced an apparently unwilling Secretary of War into rigid investigation. He issued an order declaring that "the President desires to know in the fullest and most circumstantial manner all the facts, nothing being concealed, and no man being for any reason favored or shielded." "Nothing can justify," he affirmed, "or will be held to justify, the use of torture or inhuman conduct of any kind on the part of the American army." He insisted, moreover, upon the trial of every officer accused. Now, when the results of two courts-martial have been laid before him, he has been quick to bear out by deed the written promise of last April, and to show unmistakably his abhorrence of the kind of warfare practised by Major Waller and Gen. Smith. By this action he has upheld those who contend that the best way to make an army pure and honorable is to expose its scandals relentlessly and to punish its wrongdoers, just as the surgeon extirpates a poisonous growth which threatens to contaminate the entire system.

In both of the cases at issue the court which tried the officers so erred on the side of leniency as to give special point to "Mr. Dooley's" characterization of it as an "austere but hail-fellow inquiry." But the President has practically censured the court, and has reminded the delinquent officers composing it that the honor of the army is in his hands as well

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as theirs to defend. Where it acquitted Major Waller, but the other day the recipient of a "sword of honor," the President declares that he has "sullied the American name"—a phrase borrowed, it might seem, from political opponents. Where the court merely admonished Gen. Smith, the President adds to this totally inadequate punishment by abruptly ordering the officer's retirement. Although the retired list of the army is an honorable one, and does not include the names of more than one or two Eagans, the manner of his going upon it will for ever mark Gen. Smith as a soldier disgraced at the very close of his career. The excuse of his friends that no men, or women, or children were killed as a result of his infamous order, rightly availed him as little as the assertion that Major Waller should have recognized in his "hell-roarings" the weakness of an eccentric and ill-balanced mind. When urged to promote a veteran of four wars by reason of his long service, Frederick the Great once retorted: "So is my mule a veteran of four campaigns, but that does not qualify him to be a general." Similarly President Roosevelt did not allow a long career of some merit to blind him to the atrocious character of Gen. Smith's conduct.

In his treatment of these officers Mr. Roosevelt has gone to the limit of his powers, since no retrial of the accused men, with a view to obtaining proper sentences for them, was possible. The rectitude of the President's action should not blind the public to the difficulty of his position, or lead it to withhold from him the praise he deserves. In going counter to the army-worshippers President Roosevelt has honored himself, and at the same time has made a very shrewd political move. If it should exasperate so unrestrained a defender of "kill and burn" methods as Senator Foraker to have the leader of the Republican party show up his doctrine of righteous brutality and slaughter in its true colors, it will, on the other hand, deprive the Democrats of such an opportunity for criticism of the Administration as was afforded by the conduct of the Secretary of War, who declared, on February 18, that the war in the Philippines had been conducted with "unequalled self-restraint and humanity," at the very moment that he was quietly ordering inquiry into the conduct of Major Glenn, of Capts. Ryan and Lyons, and others.

In its broader aspect the President is entitled to thanks for destroying the whole breastwork of misconception and distortion with which our budding Imperialists were fortifying their doctrine of the infallibility and freedom from criticism of the army. The Dreyfus trial showed the futility of such an undertaking in a nation eaten up and ruled by militarism. It can never succeed in this country, for there will always be Roosevelts to treat men on their merits, without regard to the waving of the flag and the cry of the demagogue, and an Opposition to make it clear that men in uniform differ from others only in the demoralizing character of their profession, and the singular temptations to which their license to kill and maim exposes them.

### *THE BIBLE AS LITERATURE.*

One of the resolutions adopted by the National Educational Association at Minneapolis week before last was the following:

"It is apparent that familiarity with the English Bible as a masterpiece of literature is rapidly decreasing among the pupils in our schools. This is the direct result of a conception which regards the Bible as a theological book merely, and thereby leads to its exclusion from the schools of some States as a subject of reading and study. We hope and ask for such a change of public sentiment in this regard as will permit and encourage the English Bible, now honored by name in many school laws and State Constitutions, to be read and studied as a literary work of the highest and purest type, side by side with the poetry and prose which it has inspired and in large part formed."

The complaint is an old one, and is well founded. Ignorance of the Bible, even among the educated classes, has reached a depth which would have left our pious ancestors aghast. President Thwing published, some years ago, the results of an investigation into the acquaintance of a typical freshman class with the phraseology of the Bible. An examination was set on the Biblical allusions in Tennyson. The results would have been laughable if they had not been so disheartening. The freshmen could not have gone farther astray if they had been asked to point out Tennyson's Virgilian refrains or echoes of Catullus. As to the fact of the declining and disappearing familiarity with the Bible, there can be little disagreement. Things have reached such a pass that a story recently told by an English man of letters might easily be found applicable to any part of the Bible. He went into a bookstore and inquired, "Have you the Apocrypha?" The young person behind the counter reflected for a moment, and then asked, "Is it a weekly or a monthly?"

That the loss of the old saturation of the popular mind with the language of the English Bible is deplorable, few would deny. It is like letting slip a precious part of our race heritage. The sinewy style, the piquant idiom, the haunting phrase—what shall our literature, our oratory, do without them? But they are going, or gone, from the general memory. The educators at Minneapolis did not overstate the extent of this literary loss of the Bible. We only wish, for our part, that there were any way of making it good: but we fear that the Educational Association was wrong both in its account of the cause of the mischief and its prescription of the remedy. We do not believe, that is to say, that the vanishing knowledge of Biblical incident and diction is due to the banishment of the Bible from the public schools, as a theological book, or that it could be restored by the reading of the Bible in the schoolroom as a pure example of the highest literature.

Where did our grandfathers get their intimate familiarity with the splendid English of King James's version? How did it become second nature to them to make their daily conversation, their family letters, vivid with racy expressions or solemn utterance taken instinctively from the Bible? They became mighty in the Scriptures, not in school, but in the church, and, above all, in the home, by means of repeated reading and compulsory memorizing under a father's eye or at a mother's knee. Ruskin has told us of the process in his own case, and it was typical. Nor did the child dream that it was literature he was getting. Devout awe and godly fear were the atmosphere about the sacred volume. Just because it was "a theological book"—because lightnings and earthquakes and the voice of a trumpet were associated with it, and in it were supposed to be wrapped up the issues of life and death, the destinies of the soul, heaven and hell—it was read and committed to memory with that wrapt attention and excitement which fastened its words for ever upon the mind. An old graduate of Phillips Academy once asked another, "Why could we never forget the principal parts of a Greek verb that we learned under Principal Taylor?" "It was because we were afraid of him," promptly replied the other. "Fear made our minds like highly sensitized plates, and we could not forget." Something like that is the true explanation of the way in which a former generation stored up the language of a book which was thought to be big with the eternal fate of every reader.

Now is it going to be possible to reproduce those old conditions by a restoration of the Bible to the schools as a piece of literature merely? If you set a boy to studying the Apocalypse as a fine specimen of post-Elizabethan English, will he carry from it anything like the imaginative associations, or the indelible memory of epithet and description, which were borne away formerly by children who read in a trembling and holy reverence, not knowing when the beasts and the dragon and the mighty angel might not appear visibly to their dilated eyes? We think the question answers itself. The old familiarity with the Bible was not gained by literary study, and it cannot now be made good by literary study. The Bible, simply grouped among the English books to be read in literature Class A, Course IV., would have to take its chances with Marlowe and Shakspere and Bacon, and would thus be at once degraded from the unique position which it formerly held, and which alone gave it

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its unrivalled place in the thought and speech of the English race.

Moreover, if the Bible is to be regarded purely in a literary light, and only as a source of reference and allusion useful to an educated man, we are bound to say that the motive for its study is lessening every year. The reason is that to employ Biblical phraseology is to employ a tongue which is becoming more and more unknown. Nobody who writes or speaks can fail to have perceived this. If you venture to borrow a phrase like "their chariots drave heavily," you are sure to get a query from the proofreader—"drove?" If some Biblical expression leaps to the lips of a public speaker—"abomination of desolation," let us say, or "the mystery of iniquity"—the blank look he observes on every face shows him that he might as well have talked Greek. Thus the purely literary motive for studying the Bible breaks down in another way. If the old Biblical associations in men's minds have disappeared, why should writer or speaker equip himself with even a noble English phraseology which will surely be caviare to the general? We conclude, therefore, that the only way in which the old familiarity with the Bible can be revived is by bringing back the social and religious conditions under which it was "the one book" to a whole people and the man of their counsel. But we hear of nobody who thinks that in fact those conditions can really be restored.

## *MUSIC AND MANLINESS.*

One of the most puzzling of all æsthetic problems lies in the fact that the English, who have achieved such splendid results in some of the fine arts—notably poetry and painting—have so long remained an unmusical nation. A thousand years ago, every Englishman was expected to be able to sing and accompany himself on the harp; and in Shakspere's time the English appear to have been as fond of music as any Continental nation. These good beginnings, however, never led to great results. For a long time it was taken for granted that the hostility of the Puritans to the art of music had checked its growth; but several recent writers have argued plausibly that this hostility has been exaggerated, and that it could have hardly had such far-reaching consequences. British commercialism, and the great national devotion to politics and to outdoor sports, then suggested themselves as explanations; but these, too, did not seem to cover the whole ground.

New light is thrown on the problem by the musical critic of the London *Times*, Mr. J. A. Fuller Maitland, in his recent volume, 'English Music in the Nineteenth Century.' One need not go so far as to agree with him that there have been born in England since 1847 five composers—Mackenzie, Parry, Goring Thomas, Cowen, and Stanford—who constitute a school or group that can be compared with any that the world of music has seen, and some of whom will ultimately be generally accepted as among the greatest composers of all time; but he certainly proves that there has been a musical renaissance in England since the middle of the last century, and that music is held in much higher esteem than formerly. The ideal of a National Opera is still unfulfilled, but the mere fact that the plan has been discussed as practicable argues progress in the right direction. That the London County Council should spend a large sum every summer in giving frequenters of the parks the opportunity of hearing good music would, writes Mr. Maitland, "have seemed incredible not long since." The number of concert-halls and concerts has increased enormously, and at a much higher rate than the general growth of the city. Students no longer have to go to foreign capitals for their musical education; and when they appear on the stage, they may safely dispense with the customary "Herr," "Signor," or "Mme.," and boldly use "Mr." or "Mrs." In short, "in a thousand ways the musical atmosphere is more favorable than it was to native talent."

Of special interest is what Mr. Maitland says about the attitude of the people generally toward music. He finds that in every class of society the standpoint of the average person in regard to it is completely different from what it used to be. The ordinary man no longer sees anything to be proud of in the confession that he does not know one tune from another; and the typical lady no longer thinks it a matter of course to indulge in loud conversation during a musical performance. The frequency with which ladies and gentlemen, in the truest sense of the words, have become professional musicians attests the honor in which the art is now held, and has also helped to raise the tone of the profession itself. But most important of all is the change in the attitude of men toward music:

> "Formerly, the average English parent considered it an almost unmentionable disgrace that a taste for music should manifest itself in the case of the male children; the daughter who had a shapely arm was obliged to play the harp as a matter of course, and any two sisters nearly of an age were bound to display their charms in pianoforte duets; but a son who should take to singing or to 'wasting his time' at the piano was held to be a sort of disgrace to any respectable family, and to require some grave treatment, medical or other, for his cure."

To-day, if we may believe our informant, the normal English parent sees no more objection to cultivating the talent for music than a taste for another art, or for a science. Be that as it may, does not the passage just cited suggest a solution of the mystery regarding the failure of the English to have great names in music? So long as music was regarded as an unmanly art, it was natural that the manliest and most ambitious men should devote themselves to other arts or occupations. It may be said that real musical genius is an irresistible impulse, and unchangeable, but that is not always the case; indeed, great genius is apt to be versatile. Richard Wagner had the poetic and the pictorial faculties almost as highly developed as the musical. Had he lived in England, he probably would have been simply a poet or a painter, allowing his musical faculty to lie dormant.

It must be clearly understood that what we mean when we deny the England of the past a place among the musical nations is not so much that it has not produced good singers and players, as that it has not given birth to a single composer of the first rank. In the matter of performance, music is both manly and womanly; violinists and pianists of the fair sex are nearly as great as their male rivals, while sopranos and contraltos are quite the equals of tenors and bassos. But, on the creative side, music is distinctly a manly art. The very fact that it has always been held to be more or less of a feminine art, and that, nevertheless, we have not a single immortal melody written by a woman, argues that virility is essential to musical creativeness. If the English, therefore, have given up the absurd idea that music is not an art for men, this change in itself will raise bright hopes for the future; and it is not impossible that, a hundred years hence, an historian of England may be able to write what a German historian can truthfully say to-day—that the two most prominent and most manly figures of the past century in his country were a politician and a musician—Bismarck and Wagner.

## A FRENCHMAN'S DIARY IN OUR CIVIL-WAR TIME.—II.

November 12, 1864.—New York. Breakfast at the Union League Club, where I had to make a speech and acquitted myself as best I could, feeling that mistakes would be overlooked in a foreigner. Goldwin Smith, an invited guest like myself, made a genuine discourse. If he carries back to his own country all the messages given him to-day, he will have his hands full:

"Tell England that we are her best friends, and can never dispense with her esteem and friendship." "Tell her," said another, more of an *Alceste* than a *Philinte*, "that we have become indifferent to her praise and censure alike." "We are but one and the same nation," said a third; "John Milton was an American, and George Washington was an Englishman." "All America," shouted a fourth, "is a new England." "What distinguishes us from England," says a fifth, "is that there is nothing insular about us; we are an idealistic people like the French." "You are a Liberal," said the Episcopal Bishop Coxe to Mr. Goldwin Smith; "you speak ill of England's aristocratic classes, her prelates, the high

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dignitaries of her Church. As for me, I like your Tories and your High Church." There were no fewer than twenty speeches. Among the guests I will name Bancroft, Evarts, George William Curtis, John Jay, Henry Ward Beecher, the aged poet Bryant.

November 13.—Dined with Richard M. Hunt, the architect, who studied at the Paris Beaux-Arts; together with John Jay, Bancroft, Goldwin Smith—the last very severe on Palmerston for his quarrelsome policy and on the recent expedition to China. "We are interfering in a host of countries in contempt of all international law, and, once there, we are indignant if these laws are violated in the most insignificant particulars by people who have never heard of them."

November 15.—Boston once more. Dined at the Revere House with the officers of the *Kearsarge*, the ship which sunk the *Alabama* off Cherbourg. Very beautiful speech by Everett in favor of Lincoln, and good remarks by R. H. Dana, jr. Captain Winslow tells in a very simple manner of his cruiser's pursuit of the *Alabama*.

November 23. — Accompanied Wendell Phillips to a lecture by Oliver Wendell Holmes, both original and agreeable. I made the acquaintance of Agassiz, who is very cordial and charming, possesses a great deal of warmth and vigor, is powerfully built, with an enormous head, strong jaws, a very speaking eye always in motion. He discusses with me Darwin's evolutionary theory, to which he is greatly opposed. He speaks enthusiastically of the American people, their generosity and love of science. They give him all he wants for the Museum he has founded.

Heard a lecture by Emerson on "American Life." He reads very badly, turning his leaves backwards and forwards. This is disturbing, but at the same time fixes the attention; every moment we catch a piquant expression, an unexpected metaphor, a paradox, a profound thought. You could have heard a fly. Emerson has his disciples—I can imagine it. There emanates from him a sort of happy serenity, a peace. He makes no pretence of eloquence; he is content to be a thinker.

November 28.—With Wendell Phillips visited courts and schools. Dined with J. B. Smith, a colored caterer, Boston's Chevet. He sent my wife, on our arrival, a magnificent bouquet. I went with Mr. Phillips to thank him. I found him at his home in Cambridgeport, with his wife (very white and well bred). In his parlor I saw portraits of Sumner, Phillips, and Garrison, a fine photograph of young Colonel Shaw, killed at the head of a black regiment in an assault on a Charleston fort. I did not decline Smith's invitation to dine with him. My wife and Mrs. M. W. Chapman were with me; the other guests were Sumner and Longfellow. The dinner was excellent. Longfellow was extremely gracious, and conversed with much warmth. Smith was evidently very happy, but nothing that he said was put on or exaggerated.

Called on Longfellow at Cambridge, in the old mansion once Washington's headquarters. Dined with Longfellow and his three daughters. He inquired about our writers, particularly Musset, and showed a lively admiration for Lamartine—"a bird that soars very high." He prefers Schiller to Goethe, and finds "Faust" unwholesome.

December 1.—Agassiz conducted me through his Museum of Natural History, immensely stocked with material. He explained to me his theory of embryonic development parallel with the historic and chronological. Dined at the club with Mr. R. H. Dana, jr., who gave me details about the Supreme Court and the character of its judgments. Soirée at Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's, she reciting verses composed by her in honor of Bryant.

December 2.—Another æsthetic soirée at the house of James T. Fields, the publisher: a lecture by Henry James on Carlyle before a very select audience. Mrs. Fields, with downcast eyes and delicate crossed hands, in a velvet gown cut in the manner of some of Raphael's portraits, had a pose full of grace. Without being a regular beauty, she possesses very great charm.

December 5.—With Edmund Quincy and my wife I go to Concord to visit Emerson. His house is old, and simple in the extreme; the parlor is furnished with a few old pieces, with faded red curtains, and branches of evergreen over doors and picture frames. A small room adjoining serves for a library; the books, ranged on wooden shelves, almost all in paper covers and showing marks of use. I notice good engravings of Michelangelo's "Sibyls" and great frescoes, a head of Dante, aged and angular, a crayon of Dante in his youth, a head of Pindar crowned with laurels.

Emerson talks at some length of Hawthorne and his morbid shyness. Mrs. Emerson (a second wife) is a tall woman with a spare face, in which a trace of beauty still lingers; large and somewhat wandering eyes. After the very simple but abundant dinner, Emerson took us out in a small carriage which he drove himself. He showed us the small obelisk erected on the bank of the Concord River, at the point where the first shots were exchanged between the British soldiers and the American militia. He also pointed out Hawthorne's home, of painted wood, like all the houses of the neighborhood, with a sort of square wooden tower where Hawthorne betook himself to work undisturbed. Near the obelisk Emerson called our attention to an old house minutely described by Hawthorne in his 'Mosses from an Old Manse.'

The Concord landscape viewed on this winter's day; the leaves already on the ground, has a certain analogy with Emerson's talent: beneath the stratum of fertile soil is hard gneiss, is granite. A beautiful light lends something aerial to a severe nature. Great benevolence, slightly skeptical, is the basis of the man's character. His spirit is broad: *humani nil a se alienum putat*. He is fond of Agassiz, but also of Darwin. He likes Sainte-Beuve, because Sainte-Beuve talks to him of everything. We encounter in Emerson's writings Montaigne, Carlyle, Indian philosophy, Plato, Swedenborg; but under his pen everything takes an original turn, a racy flavor. The Concord grape is the American wild grape improved by cultivation. Though for ever borrowing, Emerson's genius is the most original in America.

December 6.—Lecture by Wendell Phillips on the situation. He is a well-nigh perfect orator: diction, choice of words, elegance, fluency, richness of imagery, voice, figure, nobility of attitude and of countenance—nothing is wanting.

December 20.—Called on Mr. Perkins, a Hartford (Conn.) lawyer, and on Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, a relative of the Perkinses. I found her in a house of her own designing, crowded with articles brought back from Europe. She is greatly aged, as abstracted as formerly, less sprightly. Her husband is seventy-two years of age, and has a patriarchal air; he has much wit and humor.

December 23.—With Bancroft, visited the New York Historical Society, and saw Audubon's original drawings representing all the birds of America life size.

December 28.—With John Jay, visited the Astor Library.

December 29.—Dined at Bancroft's with Admiral Farragut, an excellent, perfectly simple and unaffected man. He is from the South, and his wife from Virginia. He has been faithful to the Union and the flag. He spoke to me with admiration of Grant as a man full of resources, very bold in conception, very resolute in action. At this moment Grant directs Sherman, Thomas, and Sheridan, three men of action rather than strategists. "I made Grant's acquaintance," said Farragut to me, "at Grand Gulf on the Mississippi, and told him *that* was the direction for threatening Vicksburg. He reflected, studied the map carefully, and instantly changed his whole plan of campaign. He had caught my idea." The other guests were Baron Osten Sacken, the Russian Secretary, an intelligent man and distinguished naturalist; Miss Helen Russell, Mrs. Bell, Mr. and Mrs. Langdon; Miss Cary, a relative of Agassiz's; Mrs. Barton, daughter of Livingston, former United States Minister to France.

## IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, July 6, 1902.

About 100 members of Parliament, town mayors, councillors, and other representative men are now in prison for terms of from two months to a year, practically for denouncing the system of government in Ireland, the over-taxation of the country, and for advocating legislative reform. Some few of these men are treated as first-class misdemeanants, but the greater number are committed, under an act passed 600 years ago in the reign of Edward the Third, as rogues and vagabonds, who refuse or are unable to give sureties to be of good behavior when so required by the magistrates. This act of Parliament has long been obsolete in England, but has been of late years reapplied to Ireland, not by the magistrates generally, but by those known as "removables," *i. e.*, magistrates paid by and dependent on the Crown. The evidence given in these cases is usually that of the police; and when even that evidence would not warrant a conviction for the alleged offence, the magistrates can and do call on the accused to give bail under the statute of Edward III., "to be of good behavior" for a stated period. This is almost invariably refused, and the accused is then sent to jail as a "rogue" within the meaning of the musty act of Parliament.

Needless to say, the land question is at the bottom of the trouble, and the advocates of radical reform are held to be "rogues." Meantime, the country is almost crimeless; whether it will continue so when the right of public meeting and the free expression of opinion are persistently suppressed, remains to be seen. That legis-

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lation on the land question is still needed is recognized by the Government. Chief Secretary Wyndham introduced another land bill, supplemental to the twenty or thirty acts passed since 1870. He twice refused to see a deputation of representative Ulster farmers, but now, finding that he cannot pass his bill without Unionist as well as National opposition, he is imploring those interested in the land question to meet and confer with him. This bill is admittedly drawn in the interest of the landlord class; it is to give them greater inducements to sell to their tenants—that is, it is to put up the price of agricultural estates above their natural and normal value.

The result of buying his farm at too high a price by means of a loan repayable by instalments for fifty years, is just as disastrous to the Irish peasant as paying too high a rent to his landlord. If the annual instalments are more than can be made out of the farm, and prevent the reasonably industrious farmer from keeping and increasing his farm capital, he must become poorer year by year. I notice this to be the case with those tenants who were induced to buy at unreasonable prices merely to get rid of a load of arrears due to the landlord. Many were compelled by threats of eviction for arrears to agree to buy at whatever price the landlord chose to impose. Although there has been very little loss as yet to the State from unpaid instalments, a very considerable number of instalments have to be recovered by law; the payers are still "dragging the devil by the tail," hardly able to make ends meet.

Paying a £4 instalment instead of a £6 rent will not in itself make a farmer rich, but the security of ownership leads to better cultivation and to improvement. New buildings are the most evident improvement, and in parts of the west, where hitherto cattle have been kept in the dwelling-houses, I notice that purchasers have begun to put up houses for their cattle. Small "lean-to" sheds covered with sheet-iron are common; insignificant to look at, but enabling the cattle to be better kept, and human beings to live in a more cleanly fashion. Reclamation of waste, moor, rocks, and swamp has always gone on. Such work promised an immediate return, and was done in the hope, often disappointed, that the tenant would be allowed to reap the fruits of his labor and escape an increase of rent.

To those who have not seen such work in the doing, it is incredible what labor has been spent on reclamation by the small farmers in Ireland. The present appearance of a cultivated field will not tell the onlooker what thickets of brushwood have been rooted out, what rocks have been quarried, what marshes have been dried up. The more complete the reclamation, the fewer traces remain of what has been done. But in some cases the traces cannot be removed. I recently examined a farm bought eighteen years ago. It contained nineteen acres, a narrow strip on a hillside. The upper half was almost solid rock, with heath and furze growing in the interstices and hollows. Five acres at the bottom were cultivated moor, once a bog where turf had been cut, but now growing corn, potatoes, and grass. The centre, containing about four acres, was a mass of stone walls surrounding little enclosures each of which was well and cleanly cultivated. Some of these walls were eight feet high, and varied in width from two to twenty feet. They consisted of massive boulders rooted, blasted, and quarried out of the ground, the smaller stones being piled on top. The owner said the foundations were two feet below ground. Above ground I measured these walls, quarried out of not more than four acres, to contain 50,500 cubic feet of closely packed stones, not less than 2,500 tons. "It took three generations of us to do that," said the owner. An elderly lame brother, whose foot had been crushed when a boy in moving these boulders, represented part of the cost. He had been a cripple for fifty years. The rent of this farm, created out of the waste, had been £6 before 1881. The tenant, aged seventy-six, having repaid part of the purchase money, was now paying about £2 10s., and local taxes amounting to £1 10s. "I'm no richer," he said, "but I'm contented." His small, thatched house was scrupulously clean, and an iron-roofed shed for cattle had been built since my last visit about eighteen years ago. Then there was little contentment; decrees for arrears of rent that couldn't be produced from the rocks and bogs had been followed by evictions and tumults, and close to my friend's house one of his neighbors was shot dead by the police.

Police swarm in the district. Every stranger is kept under observation. Soon after I had gone into lodgings in a village near, my hostess drew my attention to two constables watching the house. Next morning they were again on the watch, and when I rode into the country a policeman on a cycle was on my track; not till I had been seen to visit a Government official was the "observation" discontinued. This locality is now the centre of what is called disturbance. It is thickly inhabited; most of the able-bodied men work in England for several months in the year; the young women emigrate. Rents are mainly paid out of earnings in England, or remittances from the emigrants, for they could not be made, in the economic sense, out of the farms.

In 1899, the Government, through the agency of the Congested Districts Board, bought the estate of Lord Dillon, an absentee, extending to over 90,000 acres, occupied by over 4,000 tenants. Purchase and some expenditure on arterial drainage and roads came to £331,300. The rental had been £20,000. The Board, without incurring any loss, can sell and is in process of selling to the tenants for annuities running for about fifty years, which amount to £13,000. For an annual and terminable payment of 35 per cent. less than their former rents, the tenants become owners in fee. There is an end of law-suits between landlord and tenant; agents, bailiffs, and gamekeepers, causes of continual annoyance, have disappeared.

The tenants on the adjoining estates, worse agricultural slums, and more highly rented than the Dillon estate, ask that the Government shall treat them in the same way and emancipate them. The low price of cattle last year made rents more difficult than usual to be earned. Appeals to the landlords to remit part of the rent are spurned. The tenants combine, hold meetings; speakers are prosecuted and imprisoned; compulsory expropriation of the landlords is demanded by the United Irish League, by the National members of Parliament, supported by T. W. Russell, and a large section of the northern farmers. Ninety per cent. of the Irish members are pledged to demand a permanent settlement of the land question by the compulsory expropriation of the landlords. It is no greater hardship to compel them to sell at a fair price than to compel them to take a fair rent. The costs of rent litigation and the unrest it produces are ruinous to both parties. To all this Chief Secretary Wyndham replies: "Never. Be good for a while, and maybe I'll do something, but as long as there is agitation there can be no legislation, and certainly not at the instance of the United Irish League."

The Chief Secretary is supposed to be in the hands of a clique of agents, landlords, and officials. Many of these men are as much interested in the continuance of the land troubles and of the existing land system as South African contractors in the continuance of the war. Agents, bailiffs, paid magistrates, and other such officials, crown prosecutors, and police are more interested in preserving the elements of unrest in the country than the landlords, many of whom would be very glad to be compulsorily expropriated, and so saved much expense and trouble in trying to sell by agreement, making title, and the like. But these landlords would like their nominal rental to be taken as the basis of purchase—not what they have actually received. Bad debts, expenses of collection, cost of agents, bailiffs, and continual litigation make their net very much less than their nominal rental.

In the case of the De Freyne estate the landlords have taken a new departure and have served the United Irish League, the *Freeman's Journal*, and some twenty or thirty individuals with writs asking for an injunction and damages for conspiracy to prevent the tenants paying their rents. It is possible that the case may be tried without a jury; and in the hands of an Irish judge the defendants are likely to fare badly. The litigation will be prolonged and costly. Most of those sued are poor, and would be ruined not only by a judgment for damages but by the costs. Lord de Freyne is supported by a syndicate of landlords who have undertaken the payment of the interest on his estate mortgages as well as the conduct and costs of the litigation. It is expected that wholesale evictions will be commenced at once, and the housing of the evicted people is one of the problems that the United Irish League have to deal with. If the evicted families are housed on adjoining farms, injunctions can be obtained against those who shelter them; if relief is given out of the poor rates, the Local Government Board may disallow the expense and charge the individual guardians with the cost.

The case of McHugh, member of Parliament, Mayor of Sligo, and newspaper proprietor, is an example of the difficulties and dangers in the way of reformers. He was prosecuted by the Crown for the "criminal libel" of saying that a jury was "packed" in the County Sligo, as it undoubtedly was. His trial was removed to Dublin, where a "carefully selected" jury convicted him and he served six months in prison. He is now under sentence by Judge Ross for contempt of court in remarks made on the conduct

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of that judge, but meantime is in confinement for another contempt of court, having called two removable magistrates, before whom he was summoned for conspiracy, liars. The contempt in this case was deliberate, the magistrates having contradicted McHugh, and the tribunal being one which has no existence under the British Constitution except in Ireland. Magistrates cannot imprison for more than a week for contempt of court, but, on being insulted by McHugh, who appears to have stated the truth somewhat offensively, they fell back on the statute of Edward the Third, and asked for bail that he should be of good behavior, and on refusal sentenced him to six months' imprisonment as a rogue and vagabond.

McHugh is also the subject of a civil action for £5,000 damages for "conspiracy" to deprive a Crown solicitor of his position as solicitor to a Sligo local council. The "conspiracy" consisted in openly advocating the dismissal of the solicitor, on the ground that, as he was prosecuting local councillors on behalf of the Crown, he was not a proper person to act as legal adviser to the council. If tried in his own county, McHugh would have nothing to fear, but the High Court judges have transferred the trial to Belfast, where a carefully selected jury may give large and ruinous damages. At present McHugh is technically in custody, but actually at large in London, attending a House of Commons Committee, the appointment of which to investigate the magisterial sentence the Irish party were able, owing to slack attendance of Government supporters, to compel. AN IRISHMAN.

## THE JUBILEE OF THE GERMANIC MUSEUM AT NUREMBERG.

ISLAND OF FÖHR, July 6, 1902.

The inspiring festivities which, in the old city of Nuremberg, from the 14th to the 16th of June, assembled the most notable of the crowned heads of Germany, together with chosen representatives of German scholarship, burgherdom, and statecraft, to celebrate the day when, fifty years ago, the Congress of German Historians and Antiquarians decided upon the establishment of a Germanic Museum, had a threefold significance. In the first place, these festivities were a tribute to the memory of Baron von Aufsess, the virtual founder of the Museum, which now has assumed so large proportions that it cannot any longer be associated with the name of a single individual. Seldom has an idea been fought for and maintained with so much perseverance, energy, and devotion as the plan of what now forms one of the most flourishing and best-endowed museums in the world was fought for during a whole lifetime by this Franconian nobleman. Reared in the atmosphere of early romanticism, inspired by the outburst of popular enthusiasm that marked the German Wars of Liberation, initiated into the endeavors of Baron vom Stein for the promotion of mediæval studies, he conceived in the twenties of the nineteenth century the project of a museum which should be a huge repository of whatever the German people had accomplished during bygone ages in the arts and crafts, in industry and science; which, in other words, should be a colossal illustration and supplement to Stein's 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica.' For more than twenty years he wrote, labored, begged, and spent his own means for this project without obtaining any help or recognition from any quarter, without meeting with anything but ridicule or indifference, or at best half-hearted and lukewarm interest. And even when at last, in 1852, through the vote of the Historical Congress referred to, the establishment of this Museum, with Aufsess as its director, was decided upon and made a matter of common scholarly concern, the means at the disposal of the young institution were so slender that for years to come it was continually on the brink of disaster, and required constant financial sacrifices on the part of the director to be barely maintained.

Until 1857, most of its collections were housed in a single tower of the Nuremberg city wall, the Thiergärtner Thor, and the accommodations for accretions were so ridiculously insufficient that, for instance, when in 1853 the official records of the Frankfort Parliament were presented to the Museum, the twenty-three boxes containing this valuable gift had to be stored in the kitchen of a private house. It is to Aufsess's lasting credit that, in all these straits, difficulties, and disappointments, he never lost heart, always stood by the great ideal of his life, and thus weathered one crisis after another, until at last, through the acquisition of the old Carthusian monastery from the Bavarian Government, a proper housing for the growing collection was obtained, and popular and official interest in the national undertaking permanently secured. That this noble, patriotic man should have met with his death at the hands of a drunken student when, in 1873, he had gone to take part in the festivities attending the foundation of the University of Strassburg, gives to his life a touch of the irony of Fate.

It was, however, not only the memory of the founder of the Germanic Museum which actuated the festivities of last month. They were also meant as a tribute to what the German people has done for this museum since it was once publicly recognized. It is not an empty phrase when, over the main entrance of the Museum quadrangle, there stands the inscription: "Eigentum des deutschen Volkes." Here we tread, indeed, in more than one sense, upon national soil. Ever since 1857, when the institution was first housed in a manner suited to its intrinsic importance, it has stood before the public eye as a symbol of German greatness, as an embodiment of the most precious traditions of the German past, and as an appeal for maintaining these traditions in the present. Princes, states, cities, and private individuals have vied with each other in showering gifts of objects as well as of money upon it, the latter ranging from five florins collected by the pupils of a Bavarian seminary—the very first contribution made to the Museum—to the million marks which were given by two Nuremberg citizens a few weeks ago as an anniversary donation. And it would be hard to conceive of a more widely diffused popular interest in a scientific institution than that maintained in this Museum by the network of so-called *Pflegschaften*, or chapters of the Museum Association, covering all Germany, each of which is constantly disseminating, within its local boundaries, information regarding the needs as well as the most recent acquisitions of the Museum, and is thus stimulating ever new endeavors in its behalf. It is largely owing to this finely systematized popular propaganda that, apart from the running expenses of the Museum administration, which are covered by yearly appropriations from the German Empire, the Bavarian Government, and the city of Nuremberg, all other financial costs, for purchases, building alterations, special investigations, and so forth, are defrayed by voluntary contributions coming from every class of people and from every part of Germany.

The third, and to the great mass of Nuremberg citizens the most conspicuous, element of the anniversary celebration was a political one. For, while the Museum authorities had invited representatives of the official and scholastic world, there had also been invited, by the Prince Regent of Bavaria, as Chief Patron of the Museum, the Emperors of Germany and Austria and the most notable of other German princes; and although the Austrian Emperor, out of regard for the anti-German sensibilities of his Slavic subjects, had declined this invitation, Emperor William had willingly seized this opportunity of meeting once more with his South German brethren of royal blood, and of greeting the old imperial town where his ancestors had first exercised dynastic rights as hereditary Burggrafen. His presence, then, together with that of the rulers of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, imparted to these days the character of a commemoration and reassertion of German unity and of the final bridging of the gap between the North and the South, which was accomplished a generation ago. All these elements combined to give to the grand old city of Nuremberg, always so impressively picturesque and stately, additional charm and glory, and to infuse the thousands of visitors from far and near that crowded its streets and halls during these days, with a festive mood such as I have rarely observed anywhere.

I shall not describe the festivities in detail. In part, of course, they consisted of the more or less spectacular exercises common to all such occasions—processions, reviews of troops, banquets, and the like. What was refreshing even in this part of the programme was the complete absence of stiff formality, and the hearty, unfettered enthusiasm of the masses. Truly inspiring was the mighty wave of cheering that accompanied the passage of the Emperor and the other royal guests throughout the whole city, from the Museum to the ancient turreted castle towering above the town; and unforgettable was the reverent hush that lay over the vast audience which had assembled in the venerable Church of St. Lawrence to listen to a wonderful rendering, by the Munich Vocal Choir, of classic German hymn-music. While, from the artistic point of view, this concert marked the climax of the festivities, the professional interest, so to speak, centred in two meetings held in the new armor hall of the Museum itself. Of these, one consisted chiefly of addresses by delegates from universities, museums, and other learned institutions in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and America (among them our own Germanic Museum Association); the

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other was signalized by the reception of the Emperor, the presentation by him of an oaken cabinet, containing copies of the seals of all the German emperors from the Karolingians downward, and the performance by Nuremberg citizens of two Shrovetide plays of Hans Sachs. It was a curious contrast to see the homely, awkward figures of the old shoemaker-poet appear before this glittering modern audience. But here again there was the same absence of restraint and oppressive etiquette; and if one observed the genuine jollity with which the Emperor gave himself up to the enjoyment of these naïve representations of plain burgher life, all the royal splendor and officialdom seemed far away.

All in all, this was a memorable celebration, worthy of the great Museum, the modest beginnings of which it commemorated; worthy of the imperial city in which it was held. KUNO FRANCKE.

## THE CHOISEULS.—I.

PARIS, July 2, 1902.

M. Gaston Maugras cannot be said to have risen to the dignity of a true historian, but he can write agreeably on matters belonging to history. The list of his works is already very long. We find among the personages who have been the subjects of them the Duke de Lauzun, Voltaire, Jean Jacques Rousseau, the Abbé Galiani, Madame d'Épinay. His last volume has for its title 'The Duke and the Duchess de Choiseul: Their Intimate Life, their Friends, and their Time.' M. Gaston Maugras had already been captivated by the Duchess de Choiseul and had written an essay on this charming person, so remarkable, in a corrupt and frivolous time, for the dignity of her life and her virtue.

"Madame de Choiseul," he says, "is perhaps the most delicious figure of the eighteenth century. . . . We shall see her, in extreme prosperity as well as in extreme misfortune, always the same, always equal to herself, bearing with the same serenity wealth, homage, the highest rank, and also ruin, misery, forgetfulness. Never did fate contend with so lofty a soul, and she always showed herself superior to fortune."

She was the granddaughter of Crozat, who had been a petty clerk and became a great financier. Crozat made a great fortune in colonial enterprises, and was the founder of the Louisiana Company. He bought the estate of Châtel and took the name of Crozat du Châtel. He died in 1738 at the age of eighty-three, leaving a very great fortune, which was divided between his three sons and a daughter, married to the Count of Évreux, the third son of the Duke de Bouillon. His eldest son, the Marquis du Châtel, was father to the Duchess de Choiseul. The celebration of the marriage of Louise Honorine Crozat du Châtel and of the Count de Choiseul-Stainville (who became afterwards Duke de Choiseul) took place on the 22d of December, 1750, in Paris, in the private chapel of the Hôtel du Châtel. The young bride was barely fifteen years old, Choiseul was thirty-one years old. He belonged to an old and poor family of Lorraine; he had served in the army, shared in the campaign in Bohemia in 1741, and witnessed the siege of Prague.

"Choiseul," says M. Maugras, "is one of the most sympathetic figures of the eighteenth century. More, perhaps, than any other, he personified his time and his epoch; but if he possessed in the highest degree its amiable qualities, he also had all its defects. 'Good, noble, frank, generous, gallant, magnificent, liberal, proud, audacious, the Duke de Choiseul,' says Baron von Gleichen, 'recalled to mind the ancient French Knights.' Of mediocre size, with reddish hair and an almost ugly face, he still had a most amiable appearance, and his countenance spoke for him. His little eyes sparkled with wit; his upturned nose gave him a pleasant air; and his thick, laughing lips announced the gayety of his conversation. His wit, his fire, made him irresistible."

Madame du Deffand, the intimate friend of the Duchess, said of him: "He is more charming than ever; in him alone do we find grace, gayety, and charm; outside of him, all seems foolish, extravagant, or pedantic."

Choiseul did not go much to court at first; he was not on good terms with Madame de Pompadour, the favorite, though his brother-in-law, M. de Gontaut, was intimate with her, and had often tried to bring about an understanding between him and Madame de Pompadour. The favorite was always afraid of losing her influence with the King, who had become very attentive to Madame de Romanet, a cousin of Choiseul's. This lady was so bold as to make it a condition that Madame de Pompadour should be dismissed. She showed to Choiseul some of the King's letters. Choiseul was very indignant with her, and told her that if she did not leave Fontainebleau at once, he would expose her intrigue to her husband. "It is my duty," he said to her, "to put an end to an intrigue which is dishonorable to my family. Not that I am very pedantic or scrupulous on the chapter of love; I can tolerate all the tastes, whatever they may be, which you may have, even that you should satisfy the King's tastes, provided it be in secret, and without any appearance of favor." This gives exactly the tone of Choiseul's scruples; they were not inspired by virtuous sentiment, but merely by family pride. Madame de Romanet submitted, and promised to withdraw. This became the occasion of a visit on Choiseul's part to Madame de Pompadour. She thanked him for the part he had played and for the indirect service he had rendered her. From that moment their relations became cordial. "These two personages, who detested each other before becoming acquainted, felt the liveliest sympathy for each other as soon as they were in relations." Choiseul wrote afterwards: "Far be it from me to disavow that this circumstance of my life made me know Madame de Pompadour, which attached me to her by the most tender friendship, and which interested her in everything that has happened to me. I shall remember all my lifetime my attachment to her, and the gratitude which I owe her for myself, for my family and my friends."

In 1753 Choiseul was sent as Ambassador to Rome; he remained there several years, and the salon of Madame de Choiseul became a charming centre where the Romans mingled with French people and with other foreigners. Among the habitués of her circle, we find the Abbé Barthélemy, La Condamine, Baron Gleichen, a young German; Greuze, the painter; Guiard, a sculptor, a pupil of Bouchardon. Choiseul was afterwards appointed Ambassador to Vienna; it is in these terms that he gives an account of his presentation: "The Empress [Maria Theresa], after having spoken of your Majesty in terms of the greatest interest, inquired after the persons whom you honor, Sire, with your confidence, and she named Madame de Pompadour, for whom she feels much friendship and esteem." During his sojourn in Vienna, Choiseul had to confirm the alliance between the French and the Austrian courts, and was occupied chiefly with the relations between the armies which were in the field. Since 1756, the two countries had been bound by an alliance which brought them to the bloody Seven Years' War. Frederick of Prussia had to fight Russian, French, Austrian, and Swedish troops; he had no ally but England, who had engaged to furnish him with subsidies.

Choiseul was recalled to Paris, and was appointed prime minister. From the moment when he took the place of the weak Cardinal de Bernis, he became the real King of France, under the apparent authority of Louis XV.; and for twelve years he was the inspirer of French policy and the arbiter of the destinies of his country. As such, he was one of the most extraordinary men of his age. Under the appearance of levity and almost of indifference, he developed superior talents, and he repaired as much as was in his power the disasters of the Seven Years' War. It was said of him at first that he was "a petit-maître without talent, with little phosphorus in the brain." He soon proved the contrary: the great Catherine called him "the coachman of Europe." When Choiseul became minister, Madame de Pompadour had been the King's favorite for fifteen years. Nobody could foresee the end of this extraordinary favor, which was due not only to her beauty, but to a rare intelligence which could embrace all subjects. The King's passion had become a mere friendship; she had become a necessary friend, a necessary adviser. She shut her eyes on his infidelities. She imposed herself on all the ladies of the Court, on the ambassadors, on foreign princes. She knew how to practise the great art of amusing the man in the kingdom whom it was most difficult to amuse. She led the most fatiguing life and never complained. She once made this audacious comparison: "My life is like that of the Christian: it is a perpetual struggle." It was impossible for Choiseul not to treat her as an ally; he soon became something more, a friend. He introduced her to his wife and, afterwards, to his sister, Madame de Gramont. His alliance with the favorite made him omnipotent; he took the ministry of war in 1761, and afterwards the navy in 1762. He compared himself to the coachman in Molière's "Avare," who sometimes dresses as a cook. In 1760 he was made Governor-General of Touraine, grand master and superintendent of the Post-Office. In 1762 he received the Golden Fleece and the office of Colonel-General of the Swiss. His various offices yielded him 800,000 livres a year.

Madame de Gramont, his sister, lived with him and had the real authority in his household. Madame de Choiseul was mild and modest, and accepted this situation, which was the subject of much criticism, as Madame de Gramont made many enemies by her pride and her overbearing manners. Madame de Choiseul found much consolation and pleasure in the friendship

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of two persons, the Abbé Barthélemy, whose acquaintance she had made in Rome, and Madame du Deffand, whom she had known first in the salon of Madame du Châtel. Madame du Deffand is familiar to all who are acquainted with the history of French society in the eighteenth century; she is well known, also, to all who have read the Letters of Horace Walpole.

In 1761 Choiseul bought, near Amboise, the magnificent château of Chanteloup; in 1764 Louis XV. united Chanteloup to Amboise, and created out of them a ducal peerage under the title of Choiseul-Amboise. Choiseul entered into correspondence with Voltaire at the time when, after his quarrel with the great Frederick, the philosopher took refuge in the *pays de Gex*, a little territory situated between the Jura mountains and Switzerland. Voltaire obtained from Choiseul the renewal of some immunities which made the *pays de Gex* neutral ground. The letters of that period, some of which are very amusing, were published by M. Pierre Calmettes in his 'Choiseul et Voltaire' (1900). In 1762 peace was signed at last; and if the results of the Seven Years' War were not very brilliant, it was not the fault of Choiseul, who had found everything going wrong when he entered the Cabinet, and who had succeeded in procuring men and money in abundance for the continuation of hostilities. In the midst of all his troubles Choiseul never ceased to extend his protection to Voltaire; he did so during the famous Calas affair, after the publication of the 'Dictionnaire Philosophique.' But the time was approaching when he was going to lose his ally, Madame de Pompadour, who was, like himself, imbued with philosophical ideas and an enemy of the Jesuits. The Marquise died on the 15th of April, 1764, at the age of only forty-two years, worn out by the fatigues of her life. She left in her will to Madame de Choiseul a box of silver adorned with brilliants, and to Choiseul a remarkable diamond. Choiseul's difficulties were now to begin in earnest.

# Correspondence.

## A BRUGES EXHIBIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At Bruges, Belgium, an exhibition is now open, until September 15, of works of old Flemish painters. In the Hôtel du Gouvernement Provincial have been brought together the Memlings from the Hôpital de Saint Jean, many Memlings and Van Eycks from private collections in England and France, and a number of other early Flemish pictures. One of these latter, of the beginning of the sixteenth century, shows that the artist was striving for the effects of lighting attained by Rembrandt a hundred years later.

In the Gruuthuus is a collection of missals and illuminated manuscripts which date from about the tenth to the fifteenth centuries. Examined in connection with the oil paintings, these missals are an object-lesson in the evolution of painting in northern Europe. Beginning about the tenth century, the earliest drawings show an art knowledge on a par with that of a child about eight years old; if they were not representations of saints, they might be ascribed to a Sioux Indian or a South Sea Islander. As the centuries roll on, the illuminations improve: drawing creeps in, so does color, glimpses of landscape begin to appear behind the figures, until at the end of the fifteenth century some really fine water colors are produced. Some of these show a close kinship with the oils of the Van Eycks and Memling. Indeed, so closely do some men-at-arms represented in one of the manuscripts resemble the men-at-arms in the legend of Saint Ursula of Memling, that it seems quite possible that the water-color was painted by Memling himself.

The conclusion to be drawn from the Bruges exhibit is, that the earliest oil paintings were only enlarged prayer-book illustrations carried out more thoroughly in a different medium. The aims and the methods of the painters (and possibly the painters themselves) were the same in both, and the only notable difference is that the oils are larger and more elaborate than the water-colors. To any one interested in art, the Bruges exhibition is well worth a visit, for it may be doubted whether such an opportunity for studying *de visu* the evolution of early European painting has ever before been offered to the public.

EDWIN S. BALCH.

HOMBURG v. d. HÖHE, July 8, 1902.

# Notes.

The late John G. Nicolay had completed a condensation of the ten-volume Life of Lincoln produced by him in conjunction with the present Secretary of State. It will soon be issued by the publishers of that work, the Century Co.

In keeping with the revival of interest in Northwestern exploration and fur-trade is the promised reprint of Alexander Mackenzie's century-old and classic 'Voyages' across this continent, by the New Amsterdam Book Company. They announce further a translation of the 'Mabinogion' by Lady Charlotte Guest.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in press 'Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books,' by Mrs. Annie Russell Marble; 'Economics of Forestry,' by B. E. Fernow; 'Word Coinage,' a study of slang and provincialisms, by Leon Mead; 'Mind Power and Privileges,' by Albert B. Olston; Poe's Works in seventeen volumes, edited by Prof. James A. Harrison; Hawthorne's Romances in fourteen, edited by Prof. Katharine Lee Bates; and Tennyson's Poems in ten, edited by Prof. Eugene Parsons.

'Ghetto Silhouettes,' to be published by James Pott & Co., shadow forth the Russian-Jewish element in this country.

'The Conquest of the Air,' by John Alexander, announced by A. Wessels Co., will have a preface by one of the conquerors, Sir Hiram Maxim.

Taine's Correspondence in an English version will be brought out in this country by E. P. Dutton & Co.

For an occasional lighthouse-builder like F. Hopkinson Smith, there is obvious propriety in naming "Beacon Edition" the new output of this versatile author's works in ten duodecimo volumes by Charles Scribner's Sons, by arrangement with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is also highly appropriate that Mr. Smith should be the artist of the colored illustrations, and this is the case with volume one ('Laguerre's and Well-Worn Roads'); in volume six ('Caleb West, Master-Diver'), on the other hand, the drawings are by Reuterdahl. We can say no more at present of this attractive collection, which is handsomely printed, and tastefully bound in crimson cloth. Several volumes are still to come, and the whole is a subscription publication.

The fourth volume of the 'Theory of Differential Equations,' by Prof. Thorpe (Macmillan Co.)—virtually the fifth, since his 'Treatise' ought to be regarded as an introduction to the 'Theory'—is perhaps the last volume, though one more, at least, ought to follow. It is the most practical of the four, since it relates to ordinary linear equations. Nothing quite equivalent to this work exists in any language; nothing at all in our language supplying the same need of all who use differential equations.

Drude's 'Theory of Optics,' translated by C. R. Mann and R. A. Millikan (Longmans, Green & Co.), is the only work in our language, if not in any language, which presents the modern theory in the form of a text-book. No one whose business it is to be acquainted with the modern theory of light can afford to leave this work unstudied.

It is a common misconception that the pulse is an expansion of an artery (popularly confined to the wrist) from an increased volume of blood forced through it by the heart beat. In fact, the artery does not expand, and more blood does not pass any given point at a fixed time. The blood flow is continuous, and the impulse felt on pressure against a resisting background is that of a wave running along the channel. Its bedside lessons are traditionally of the greatest value; but the common impression that frequency and force are the only essentials to be observed, and that the nurse who makes a record of the number of beats relieves the educated touch from its delicate duty, is quite erroneous. The blood wave has numerous features besides mere force and frequency, and each tells its story to the instructed mind. Dr. James Mackenzie's 'Study of the Pulse' (Macmillan) is a delightfully clear and careful discussion of the whole subject, with special inquiry as to the diagnostic value of pulse irregularity, and includes a survey of the venous and the liver pulse. For twenty years the author has been accumulating and reflecting upon these facts. We especially commend section 104 to those insurance companies which make bradycardia an unqualified cause for rejection. Dr. Mackenzie has, in our opinion, added a classic to the literature of clinical medicine.

The *Beilage* of the Munich *Allegemeine Zeitung*, No. 130, contains, from the pen of Albert Mayr, an instructive report of the excavations made during the past twenty-five years by Father A. L. Delattre on the site of ancient Carthage, which have resulted practically in restoring in outline the old Punic city, and shed a flood of light on the life and antiquities of that mighty rival of Rome. The whole work has consisted virtually in unearthing one vast necropolis; the number of tombs from the oldest period alone, between the sixth and eighth centuries, being more than

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eleven hundred. The finds from each period reflect the political and business relations of the Carthage of that time; the oldest being largely under Egyptian and Phœnician influences, the later under Greek and Roman. They consist chiefly of amulets, rings, chains, coins, etc., in gold, silver, bronze, glass, terracotta, etc. These are each represented in hundreds of samples, and are deposited in the special museum established by the White Mission Brotherhood of Northern Africa.

Russia has decided to found an archæological museum in Sebastopol. The building is to be erected in the style of an old Christian basilica, and to be arranged for three departments, one devoted to the Greek, one to the Roman, and a third to the Byzantine period. The whole project has been intrusted to the management of Grand Duke Alexander Mikhailovitch.

One of the most valuable developments resulting from Germany's colonial enterprises has been the establishment of the Oriental Seminary in Berlin, the purpose of which, modelled to a certain extent after similar institutions in Paris and London, is chiefly to furnish practical instruction in Oriental languages, history, etc. Double courses are arranged in leading departments, one theoretical, in charge of a European specialist, and the other practical, with a native teacher. The faculty, headed by Professor Sachau of the University, now numbers 24 European and 8 native instructors. The attendance is constantly growing, the present semester having an enrolment of 146, of whom 3 are women. These students represent the departments of law, philology, pedagogics, business, state officials, army and navy, medicine, theology, and technical branches, all being candidates for positions in the Orient. The languages taught were Chinese, Japanese, Arabic (three dialects), Persian, Turkish, besides a number of modern European tongues.

The Senate of the University of Berlin recently took action on a formal petition of the women in attendance, asking that the authorities admit women who apply with the equivalent of a *testimonium maturitatis* from a recognized secondary school, to the full university privileges of matriculation and degree. The action was a refusal, and for the first time a university of Prussia has taken a positive official step in this matter. The influence of cosmopolitan Berlin will doubtless be followed by the other schools of this grade in Prussia, and Prussian precedence in higher educational matters is generally decisive for the rest of Germany. Only Baden of the German States in the two territorial institutions of Heidelberg and Freiburg admits women to university privileges on an exact equality with men, and this State has also provided special secondary girls' schools leading up to entrance into the University. Berlin, however, notwithstanding the hostility of the authorities to women students, still constitutes the chief attraction for this contingent, the enrolment last year having been 611, or exactly half of the total number in attendance at all of the twenty-two German universities. Since the summer of 1896, when the first women were permitted to attend lectures, the number has increased from forty to more than fifteen times as many. The growth has been regular and steady.

A significant testimony to the change of opinion in India in regard to the difficult and delicate problem of female education was given by the Maharajah of Gwalior, one of the largest of the native states, at the coronation banquet of the Royal Asiatic Society. He said that the success of the girls' school founded in his state four years ago had been so unexpectedly great, notwithstanding "much opposition and prejudice," that "a special institution has been established within the last few months for the daughters of my nobles, a class who keep their daughters in seclusion, and who, a short time ago, would have been most unwilling to send them to school." He closed with a glowing tribute to Lord Curzon's interest in education, especially in the matter of "chiefs' colleges" and in his organization of the "Imperial Cadet Corps to provide a military career for those scions of noble houses whose inclinations lie in that direction."

—The Bodleian Library has lately entered upon an enterprise most deserving of support, from other libraries in particular. It undertakes to furnish photographic reproductions in several classes, of which the circular before us exhibits six: (1) the Bodleian buildings, in six views (silver prints); (2) seven Shelley relics, including the Sophocles with which he was drowned, and of which "the edges are supposed to show the mark of his thumb, incrusted with brine" (collotypes); (3) four rare impressions, as Caxton's Advertisement of 1477, and Columbus's Letter to Sanxis, 1493 (photolithographs, original size, in colored paper covers, with introductions); (4) miscellaneous objects, from an abbreviated signature of Shakspere to Woolner's bust of Gladstone (collotypes); (5) bindings, as of a New Testament reputed to preserve "a piece of the unfortunate King Charles's waistcoat" (collotypes); (6) palæographical (collotypes, with long or short note as necessary). All these pieces have their order numbers and prices affixed, ranging from sixpence to two shillings. The circular lays special stress on the palæographical series, which will be extended as rapidly as the demand warrants, and in the case of MSS. written by more than one contemporaneous scribe examples will be given of each hand. Number 1 on the present list ("Actus Apostolorum"), of the middle of the eighth century, proceeds from an "English *scriptorium* of women," namely, the nuns of St. Mildred's Abbey, Isle of Thanet. It is written in four hands.

—'The Journal of James Melvin, Private Soldier in Arnold's Expedition against Quebec,' has been reprinted with notes and an introduction by Mr. Andrew C. Melvin (Portland: H. W. Bryant). There are numerous diaries of this dolorous but heroic campaign by men who took part in it, and most of them are longer than Melvin's. Indeed, nothing could be briefer than are the notices in this journal throughout the greater part of its course. For weeks at a time, it is hardly more than a chronicle of the weather. The present editor, by the aid of copious extracts and illustrations, manages to make the text occupy forty-three pages, but, printed without comment, it would hardly be longer than an ordinary descriptive letter of the eighteenth century. Yet, notwithstanding their extreme brevity, Private Melvin's notes are occasionally of some interest. The late Mr. Codman's conclusion that it was a great mistake to carry batteaux is supported by many passages in this as in the other journals. Melvin was taken prisoner at Quebec, and remained in confinement from January to August of 1776. His diary, however, is of little value after the death of Montgomery. On the whole, we must rate it lower than its first editor, Mr. W. J. Davis, did, or than Mr. Melvin does. While it gives some pitiful details of hardship and anguish, it furnishes few facts or comments which seem to throw important light upon any part of the expedition. Perhaps one reason for reprinting this bare and partial register of events was that an introduction by the editor might stand before it. At any rate, the introduction must be looked upon as the most considerable feature of the book. According to Mr. Melvin, the failure of Arnold's expedition was a blessing in disguise. "We cannot," he says, "doubt God's overruling providence dispensed American defeat in Canada; and, studying the event with its time and place in history, and trying to extract proper historic lessons from the same, we will [shall] be led to see in it a signal instance of Divine providence in our favor." Apparently the author has failed to profit by some of the most important literature on the period—for example, Professor Coffin's 'Quebec Act and the Early American Revolution.' The book is well printed, but the handsome appearance of the page is sometimes marred by careless proofreading.

—The 'History of Wachovia in North Carolina,' by John Henry Clewell (Doubleday, Page & Co.), presents the interesting narrative of the southern province of the Moravian Church in America from the first surveys made by Bishop Spangenberg in 1752 down to the present time. It makes no pretensions to literary excellence, but is a plain and simple account of the trials and tribulations of the early settlers, of the missionary and educational work of the Church, and of the material prosperity of Winston-Salem. Prior to the civil war the most important missionary work of this branch of the Moravian Church was done among the surrounding colored population, but this has now almost ceased, as the negroes have assumed full charge of their own religious exercises and no longer care to be instructed in morals by the white man. The Moravians have been active in educational work since the time of Comenius, and the seminary at Salem has a long and satisfactory record of usefulness which is fully detailed in this volume. Interesting information, hitherto unknown to engineers, is given regarding the water-supply system installed at Salem in 1778, the third public water supply constructed in the United States, and also concerning fire service, two fire steamers having been imported from Germany and put into use in 1785. The book closes with an exposition of the doctrinal position of the Moravians, and with biographical sketches and statistics. Ten ministers now serve twenty-six congregations on and around the tract of land originally called Wachovia, these congregations having 5,401 communicants and 4,296 pupils in their Sunday-schools, and at their spiritual head is one bishop. Altogether, this work stands on a different

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plane from the local history of a town, for it contains many matters of colonial and national interest taken from the carefully kept diaries of the officials of the Moravian Church.

—"A. M. F.," author of 'Foreign Courts and Foreign Homes' and 'On the Banks of the Seine,' has recently published another volume which deals with court and diplomatic circles. The title of this book is 'Tales of My Father' (Longmans), and the anecdotes which it contains belong to the middle part of the last century. The cover bears a profile of Queen Victoria, and there is more than one hint that the writer was led to print these reminiscences by the circumstance of the Queen's death. "My father," says she, "was at one time of his life intimately acquainted with the royal family of Great Britain, for he was constantly with Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, who treated him with the greatest confidence, disclosing to him all his hopes and fears, all his ambitious views, and all his quarrels (and they were many) with his royal brother." Through and through, it is a book of gossip, with one or two digressions into the realm of the marvellous. The gossip is by no means malicious, but it is thin and possesses little historical value. While abundant proofs of an amiable personality are to be found, and the style is that of good conversation, we are seldom brought very close to subjects of importance. The officers whose friendships and acquaintances are recalled, seem to have been on good terms with a number of royalties, but their phrases of civility and personal good will are not of the widest interest. Perhaps the best anecdotes are those connected with Napoleon III. in the closing days of his obscurity. Such a vast number of stories, whether true or invented or embellished, are told about this period in the Emperor's life that it is hard to contribute anything novel or especially characteristic. However, the author's father and Lord Malmesbury, when travelling together on the Continent in 1845, came across Prince Louis Napoleon at Florence, and saw a good deal of him both there and at Geneva. The stories of the royal adventurer which we get in these pages seem less highly colored and more authentic than such tales usually do.

—The April Proceedings of the German Asiatic Society of Japan very appropriately celebrates the tercentenary of the arrival in Japan of William Adams, the English pilot who influenced very considerably the naval architecture of 17th-century Japan. Pilot Street (Anjin Cho) in Tokio, his own Siamese curiosities, and the handsome monument erected to his honor in the village of Hemi, a few miles from Yokohama, are the obvious relics of this first Englishman in the Far East. Mr. Ludwig Reiss, in a paper on "Will Adams and his 'Grave' in Hemi," shows that Adams really died on the island of Hirado, and that the tomb at Hemi, where his legitimate Japanese wife and children lived, is a cenotaph erected most probably at the time of the death of his widow. In old Yedo the honor awarded to Will Adams grew into a sort of cult, pilgrimages being made every year to Adams's grave from the great city down the bay to the temple at Hemi, where masses were said for the repose of his soul, and in 1798 two handsome memorial stone lanterns were erected. A delightful paper on Japanese personal and family ceremonial, such as salutations, remembrance of the dead, the various social duties and anniversaries of each month, and the more festal occasions, are noted and described with a bibliography and four first-rate folding-page illustrations, by Mr. Schiller. The strong paper on "The Reform of Japanese Script," with copious wood-cut illustration of the comparative forms of the Japanese and foreign (Dutch, English, and French) laryngal openings during pronunciation, throws new light on a very important subject. It is a piece of German thoroughness, and has been done by Prof. Dr. K. Florenz in collaboration with Japanese scientific men. Accounts of meetings and a table of contents of the eight stout volumes of Proceedings, which reveals astonishing richness, complete a very satisfactory number.

## LIEUT.-GEN. SIR HARRY SMITH.

*The Autobiography of Lieutenant-General Sir Harry Smith*, Baronet of Aliwal on the Sutlej, G.C.B. Edited, with the addition of some supplementary chapters, by G. C. Moore Smith, M.A. Two volumes, with portraits and illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Sir Harry Smith, who died in 1860, had, notwithstanding his long and honorable service, dropped from the memory of the present generation until the siege of the town of Ladysmith in Natal, by the Boers in 1900, recalled the name of his wife. Her career had been hardly less full of picturesque adventure than her husband's, and moved the editor of these volumes to make inquiry concerning possible memoranda of the life of his great-uncle, with the surprising and gratifying result of the discovery of a mass of manuscript, written in the intervals of Sir Harry's active service, entitled "Anecdotes and Events of my Life." Sir Harry had a modest estimate of these literary remains, which he suggested might be worked up by some skilful romancer into a readable story. But the bare truth as he records it, with no false modesty in the details of his part in stirring events of historical importance, but rather with the naïve frankness of one who is writing for personal friends and kindred, makes a sufficiently attractive tale without the need of any touch of art.

It was indeed a romantic career of which Sir Harry left these notes. He obtained, by the customary purchase, a lieutenancy in the English army when he was eighteen, and straightway was sent upon some military expedition to South America, in which he saw vigorous fighting. Six years later, in 1814, he was aide-de-camp to Gen. Ross in the burning of the national capital, Washington (of which exploit he seems to have been ashamed), and, having in the meanwhile recrossed the sea as bearer of dispatches to London, was back in time to take part in Pakenham's disastrous assault upon Jackson's entrenchments at New Orleans. He was in the thick of the battles and sieges of the Spanish Peninsula under Sir John Moore and Wellington from 1808 to 1814, and had hardly returned from the United States when Napoleon's escape from Elba summoned him, with the rest of the Peninsula veterans, to Waterloo and the subsequent occupation of France by the Allied armies. Then he was sent to South Africa, and showed characteristic vigor and wisdom in quieting a Kafir uprising; was next appointed Adjutant-General of the Army of India, in which country, in the course of time, he earned his highest title of Lieutenant-General, and his decoration of the Grand Cross of the Bath. His subjugation of the Sikhs in the Punjab, in 1845-46, crowned by his brilliant conduct of the battle of Aliwal, enhanced his already distinguished reputation as a soldier, and elicited from Wellington a hearty panegyric in the House of Lords; indeed, Wellington took occasion frequently to give expression to his admiration for Smith's ability in whatsoever military post he occupied.

Smith was Governor of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope in a critical period of South African history, from 1847 to 1852, and it was in grateful memory of what he then did that the towns of Harrismith and Ladysmith were named. He served, either in civil or in military commands, in Jamaica, in Canada, and during some labor agitations in Scotland, but the outbreak of the Crimean war found him too old for the field.

It is with these varied experiences that his anecdotes deal; and if they do not pretend to be a critical history of momentous events, they are graphic and entertaining accounts of personal risk, hardship, and good-natured endurance by a soldier who seems from the first to have won the affection and confidence of his companions and his superiors, and who, to the end, even under treatment from the home Government which excited his sharp resentment, remained a frank and good-natured, if often a blunt-spoken, gentleman, incapable of malice or bad manners.

In the Peninsula there were abundant openings for volunteer labor and bravery by a young officer ambitious to win his spurs, and Smith seems to have gained the reputation of untiring love of the dangerous spot in a campaign, and thorough performance of whatsoever duty might be laid upon him. Out of it all he plucked sport and romance as well as reputation. At the siege of Badajos, in the spring of 1812, his Light Division was assigned one of the imminent deadly breaches in an assault whose fury, as well as the savagery of the subsequent sack of the city by the English soldiers, Napier has painted in dark hues; while also the great historian wrote of the conduct of one of the heroes of the attack, in a sentence which has become classic; "No man died that night with more glory; yet many died, and there was much glory." Amid the salvage from the horrors of the day, of which the light-hearted youth speaks with a few words of detestation, Smith found the wife who was thenceforward to be seldom separated from him, even in the most severe hardships of campaigning. This is the account of her appearance as given by a companion of Smith's:

"I was conversing with a friend a day after the capture, when we observed two ladies coming from the city, who made directly towards us. The elder of the two, still a young woman, at once addressed us. Her husband was a Spanish officer in a distant part of the kingdom. But yesterday she and this, her young sister, were able to live in affluence and in a handsome

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house; to-day they knew not where to lay their heads. Her house was a wreck, and, to show the indignities to which they had been subjected, she pointed to where the blood was still trickling down their necks, caused by the wrenching of their earrings through the flesh by the hands of the worse than savages, who would not take the trouble to unclasp them." "For herself, she said she cared not; but, for the agitated and almost unconscious maiden by her side, whom she had but lately received from the hands of her conventual instructresses, she saw no security but the seemingly indelicate one she had adopted, of coming to the camp and throwing themselves upon the protection of any British officer who could afford it."

This maiden was but fourteen years old, but her beauty moved the susceptible hearts of many of the young officers, of whom Harry Smith was the most courageous and persuasive wooer; and he straightway called in the service of a *padre*, and made her his wife. This girl had not been wholly unaccustomed to warfare, for she had been in three sieges of her native city, in one of which her brother died in her arms. She quickly adjusted herself to the difficult conditions of her new estate, and thenceforward became an attractive centre of the soldiers' chivalry. She learned to ride well, ran great risks, and plunged into rivers and faced storms and rough bivouacs with cheerfulness; and, as the husband avers, far from disheartening him for his duties, rather stimulated him to greater zeal to rise in honor.

The young couple were separated at the end of the war in the Peninsula by Smith's dispatch to the American army; but when Wellington was marshalling the forces for Waterloo, Smith and his wife hastened to the post of danger. The wife was left with the non-combatants at Brussels, and was swept towards Antwerp in the panic which fell upon the city on the evening of the 18th of June. The Antwerp hotels were filled with the English refugees, but Col. Craufurd, in command of the Citadel, received her cordially into his home, where she divested herself of the black mud of the road, which had soaked her from head to foot. In the afternoon of the 19th she heard of the Allied victory, and hastened towards the field, spurred, as she approached, by the report of some stragglers that her husband was killed. At midnight she found him unhurt. She had been in the saddle since three in the morning, and had ridden some sixty miles, from one point to another of her search. And he, as usual, had been in the hardest of the fight, having two horses killed under him. It was his opinion that Napoleon fought the battle badly; for "the Duke's army was a heterogeneous mass, not the old Peninsula veterans; young Second Battalions, most of them; others intermixed with the rabble of our allied army." "I have been over many a field of battle, but, with the exception of one spot at New Orleans and the breach at Badajos, I have never seen anything to be compared with what I saw. At Waterloo, the whole field, from right to left, was a mass of dead bodies."

During the three years' occupation of France by the Allies, the Smiths were luxuriously billeted at Cambray, in the house of one Monsieur Watin, who was agreeably surprised to find his enemies such courteous tenants. "We were fêted by every one. I was the huntsman of a magnificent pack of hounds, steward of races, riding steeplechases, etc. My wife was taken notice of by every one, especially by the Duke, who, having known her as a child, always called her his Spanish heroine, Juana." The typical British passion for hunting was Smith's inveterate diversion, wherever he was. In the Peninsula he recorded that once, after a dismal day's march in cold and wet, he and his wife were crowded into a little hut with his pack of dogs, *thirteen in all*. But his ardor gave them many a dinner of rabbits when rations were short.

When, in 1835 and 1836, he had laid upon him the perplexing settlement of antagonisms betwixt the Kafirs and the Boer and English immigrants, he acted with untiring energy in the initiation of the policy of thoroughly subduing the natives by rapid forced marches upon their villages, and the seizure of their most formidable chiefs as hostages, and then of conciliating their good will by a generous protective government, to relieve the masses from the savage despotism which the rule of the chiefs invariably was. His policy was reversed by the home Government, and he was superseded under charges of cruelty to the Kafirs—charges which, under investigation, were soon withdrawn. But the colony of Queen Adelaide was restored to native control, with the immediate result of an emigration of the Boer farmers, who had looked to the English army for their protection, and who bitterly complained that they had been shamefully abandoned to the mercies of savages.

When Sir Harry came back to the Colony twelve years later, as Governor, he felt confident that the kind relations which he had formerly established with all classes, native and European, would enable him speedily to pacify all hostilities; and for a time his success seemed assured. But the increase of immigration, and the rise of new and complex problems of representative government, to whose settlement, very likely, the methods and temper of an impulsive soldier were not in the highest degree adapted, and a renewal of the Kafir wars with much ferocity, created grave dissatisfaction towards him on the part of Lord Grey, the Colonial Minister, and afforded occasion for his summary recall, not, however, under criticism of his civil administration, but for alleged want of energy in conquering the Kafirs. Here, at least, his old friend, the Duke of Wellington, was a competent and convincing witness in his defence, for, in the House of Lords, the Duke declared: "I, who am his commanding officer, though at a great distance, entirely approve of all his operations."

Before Sir Harry had reached England the hostile administration of Lord John Russell, in whose Cabinet Grey was Minister, had fallen; the chief cause of the change of government being popular discontent with the colonial policy. Sir Harry, in reply to the criticism of his superiors, defended his conduct with great dignity and spirit, but on his return considered the case closed so far as any personal feelings had been disturbed, and took an early occasion to accept an invitation to dinner from Lord Grey; conduct which the latter recognized as "most handsome and honorable."

## PATTEN'S THEORY OF PROSPERITY.

*The Theory of Prosperity.* By Simon N. Patten, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy, University of Pennsylvania. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. ix, 237.

Little did the world of 1876 think that the cry of "Back to Adam Smith" would ever become to economics a significant rally. On the occasion of the centennial of the appearance of the 'Wealth of Nations,' it was evident to those who took part in the celebration of that event that the exercises really marked the extinction of Smith's most essential notions. The political economy of to-day, it was argued, had departed from the lines laid down by Smith, and in the future the emphasis would be upon points which he had paid but little attention to or had overlooked. The history of economic theory between 1776 and 1848 is a history of the development and refinement of ideas first brought into prominence by Smith, a process reflected in the pages of Ricardo, Malthus, and James Mill. All these and other writers of the period were principally concerned with making clear certain phases of economic doctrine that appealed especially to them, and there was practically no systematic writing in economics until J. S. Mill's work appeared in 1848. In rewriting political economy, Stuart Mill dropped the obsolete parts of the 'Wealth of Nations,' garnered the results of the years of economic discussion, and gave to the world a work that represented English economic thought in the middle of the nineteenth century. For a quarter of a century Mill's work dominated economic theory, and then the break-up began again. From every quarter, attacks were made upon the classical edifice that had been so patiently constructed. These attacks necessitated a restatement of old doctrines, the incorporation of new principles; but there was no thorough revision of the whole subject upon a new basis.

Smith's work was in reality a theory of prosperity, the part on Distribution being merely supplementary to account for the elements of Price; but by Mill's time the controversies of Distribution had become the centre of economic controversy, and since that day these problems have absorbed all the energies of economists, and have come to be regarded as making up the content of any significant economic discussion. The force of this movement has been to confine economic thought within narrow lines without reaching the general economic problem; thus justifying the criticism that the conventional economist failed to see the forest for the trees. For instance, in Mill's hands, the theory of Production became little more than a preparation for the subsequent theory of Distribution which affects to divide Income into definite shares, whose apportionment is determined by economic causes. As a matter of fact, he was really discussing the Distribution of Wealth among economic categories labelled Laborers, Capitalists, and Landlords. Moreover, the shares were made definite by the existence of the historical racial and social differences that divided English society, which differences disappearing, the shares lost their definite character.

The confusion that has arisen out of the efforts to redefine the economic terms has gone far to give the subject the character of that decayed species of mental gymnastics known as Scholasticism; with the re-

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sult of forcing many who have concerned themselves with economic problems to resort to the expedient of speaking not as economists, but as "social philosophers." With the great changes in the industrial organization and the disappearance of the so-called economic funds, social distinctions can no longer serve as the basis for theories of distribution; while the terms rent, profits, interest, and wages cease to be clear demarcations of income, and must be newly defined or entirely discarded. The point of view of the book under review is that society must be studied from the standpoint of the Smith doctrines of prosperity, rather than the Marxian one of Distribution:

"That social evils are economic in their origin is a mere assumption. Economic laws are the outcome of forces acting in the present environment. Evidence for or against them must come directly from the relations existing between men and the environment in which they live. All economic forces arise out of existing conditions and exert an influence on the present race of men. An environment once left is no longer a living force. Its effects, however, may influence men, but it will be through heredity, morals, and traditions. The present environment acts on men through its economic forces; past environments through heredity and its accompanying habits, customs, and impulses. Long-standing evils, therefore, showing themselves in many races and at various times, are more likely to be the result of heredity than of environment. They are more nearly the same in all existing races than are their present environing conditions" (pp. 1, 2).

Up to this point current economic theory has not felt the force of evolutionary doctrines. Nor has biologic thought sufficiently recognized the importance of economic conditions; so that Prof. Patten's attempt to focus these two groups of discussion is significant, as is also the emphasis he lays on the different views of Production, each of which throws light on some problem. The laborer's view consists of the reactions between man and nature: work is the output of energy; pay is the return in goods. The view of the buyers and sellers lays stress on market relations, of which so much advantage is now taken. A third view is that of the investor, who is interested in the permanent aspects of production, and regards all conditions as due to forethought and organization of economic forces. All of these views deal with existing conditions, reflecting the relations between men and their present environment—each view showing the disposition of income under the conditions where it is dominant; and, by ignoring race differences, these views present a Normal Man who seeks an equilibrium between the outgo of energy and the return flow of goods. Race differences exist and cannot be ignored, but should be treated by themselves and discussed from an evolutionary standpoint. The growing powers of men constantly modify their relations to Nature, and change the normal tendencies which it is the end of economic forces to attain. Race problems affect income in three ways. First, the struggle for supremacy causes the subjection of the weaker and leads to their exploitation (this, however, is merely a redistribution of income, no increase). Second, the increase of income is due to adjustment (men are modified to meet new conditions, and the laws of this modification are of economic interest in so far as they augment the total income by increasing adjustment). The third way in which racial influences affect income is through the creation of economic rights: the strong allows more than would result from mere struggle to go to the less efficient and even to non-producers, causing to arise tendencies toward equality that pure economic forces would not create. The great criticism of the bulk of economic literature of the early half of the nineteenth century is that it does not deal with the right subject-matter, which ought to take account of changes socialistic and communistic. It is the irony of the situation that some of the keenest weapons of the Socialists have been drawn from the arsenal of economic classicism; an arsenal furnished from the Corn-laws and Poor-law controversies, and unprovided with arms of precision for the more recent warfare growing out of the social consequences of the industrial revolution.

Another notable feature of Professor Patten's book is the way in which the newer economic doctrines are deprived of the coloring gained from their original relations to particular discussions, and so correlated as to form a new economic outlook. The work serves as an exposition or restatement of recent theories, and at the same time brings back economic theory to the broader ground on which it was placed by Adam Smith. The theory of prosperity is thus restated in the foreground, and present industrial conditions receive an explanation which the older theories fail to supply. *Wages* are the pay of all who come in contact with nature, and not the pay of unskilled workmen who form for this reason a distinct social class. *Rent* is the gain of all who have monopoly advantages, and not merely an income dependent on the peculiarities of English landlords. *Capital* is the accumulated results of forethought and prudence, and not a fund to support laborers who live from hand to mouth. Real issues thus come to the front and get an answer.

In its main outlines the book is one of theory, and yet it is practical in the real and best sense of the word. It shows the condition on which progress rests, and at the same time formulates a code of rights that result from the premises used; in this way a programme of reform is presented much more definite than many of the schemes based primarily on compromise or on the details of practical life.

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*The French Revolution and Religious Reform.* By William Milligan Sloane. (Based on the Morse Lectures for 1900, before the Union Theological Seminary.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

An author writes his book in order to work out his own conception, and he not unnaturally complains when the reviewer finds fault with him for not having worked out a totally different conception. Feeling that the author should at least be permitted to name his own book, we pass criticism upon the title of Professor Sloane's volume with considerable misgiving. However, if a title is intended to give the key to the contents, we must demur at the outset to the expression "religious reform." As the second title explains, this is "an account of ecclesiastical legislation and its influence." Religious reform, in a distinctive sense, is not the theme and cannot be, inasmuch as the French Revolution did little or nothing for the readjustment of religious convictions. It would doubtless be possible to write a history of the years 1789-1804 from the purely religious standpoint, but that is not what Professor Sloane has done. His sketch deals first and foremost with ecclesiastical legislation. Of course matters which lie outside the sphere of practical politics are touched upon. Under the Constituent and the Convention ecclesiastical legislation reflected public opinion—not always national opinion, but certainly the characteristic views of leading parties. Therefore the genesis of the opinions, whether Erastian, anti-Roman, or anti-Christian, which were embodied in legislation becomes an important matter, and thereby the scope of the treatise is enlarged. Nevertheless, the discussion is much more political than religious, and we must submit that if the book had been associated by its title with ecclesiastical *politics, and not with religious reform,* it would have been better named.

In his opening chapters Professor Sloane goes back to the feuds of Jesuit and Jansenist, to the struggle of the *parlements* with the Church, and even to the Concordat between Leo X. and Francis I. At the other extreme he reaches Napoleon's Concordat with Pius VII., and closes by describing the enforcement of that measure. The three main subjects are the state of the Church in France on the eve of the Revolution; the development of ecclesiastical legislation in the days of the Constituent Assembly; and the negotiations between Malmaison and the Vatican during the opening months of the Consulate. While the periods of the Legislative Assembly, the National Convention, and the Directory are not altogether overlooked, the chief interest of the study centres in the measures which accompanied the beginning of the Revolution and its end.

When we think of the Palais Royal, of the *tricoteuses*, and of political leaders like Mirabeau, Talleyrand, Barras, and Bonaparte, the signs of a great religious movement are not disclosed to view. What the tone of the salons was during the régime of Calonne and Loménie de Brienne may be gathered from La Harpe's 'Prophecy of Cazotte.' But though philosophers might scoff at Romanism and at Christianity, they were still philosophers, and their creed meant intellectual freedom. To be truly successful, the Revolution should have given France religious liberty. Its failure at this point was so glaring that no historian can pass by the coercive, intolerant laws of the triumphant Radicals without offering some theory regarding their origin. Professor Sloane, like others, is deeply impressed by the weakness of Revolutionary legislation in respect to toleration, and gives it much of his notice; but whereas most previous writers have been content to dwell upon the political connection of the upper clergy and the non-juring priests with the cause of the monarchy and with the national enemies, he seeks an ultimate reason in the "substitution of subjective for concrete thinking which was the Roman heritage bequeathed to Gaul and to France." This classical feeling was not rooted out by Christianity, and in France it has distorted the whole philosophy of emancipation and liberty.

"To the French mind, liberty was either license under a hypothetical law of nature, or political equality under political tyr-

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anny; in no sense was it the personal independence, compatible with legal and moral rights and guaranteed by a forbearing and enlightened public opinion, which is the resultant of righteousness in the persons forming society. This Latin concept of liberty was the poison to be injected into the veins of the body politic as an antidote to the poison of the prevalent infamy; organized and tyrannical secularism was to destroy organized and despotic ecclesiasticism, monarchical absolutism was to make way for democratic absolutism. The latter was the device of Rousseau; it was his passion and his fire which entered the soul of France and so moulded, alas! the whole Revolution."

We emphasize this aspect of the subject because throughout the whole work Professor Sloane's strongest impulse is the love of religious liberty. One sees it in his admiration of Grégoire of Blois, "spotless in character, wise in administration, and successful in his pastoral work." But, after all, he is less indebted for Professor Sloane's good will to his personal merits than to his steadfast defence of toleration, and especially to his great speech of December 21, 1794, when "once more and with glowing logic he began to plead the cause of religious liberty, nor did he feel the slightest tremor before the yells and execrations of the bedlamites among the Deputies who opposed him. His one repeated cry was for complete liberty of thought and worship, a total emancipation of religion from the tyranny of the state. His most powerful effort was that speech which he had ready for the decisive moment." And not only does Grégoire gain Professor Sloane's approval, but all those who sinned against the ideal of religious freedom invite his chastisement. Thus, he attacks the clergy, whom Voltaire attacked; thus, he inveighs against Chaumette and Hébert. The most notable victim of his censure is the National Convention. "The course of the sovereign assembly was correspondingly a swift descent to hell, in which every type of extreme fanatic heathen took his turn at the helm and was swept into perdition to make room for another, until the engulfing maelstrom was reached and the faint-hearted, shallow Robespierre sounded the alarm."

So profound has been the effect of the Concordat upon the life and politics of modern France that many readers will turn with the greatest curiosity to Professor Sloane's account of the measure and its effects. Here his most important contention relates to the "organic laws" which were and remain part and parcel of the system inaugurated by the Concordat. On the one hand, there is the theory which conceives Napoleon's motive to have been purely selfish; on the other, there is the plea of his admirers that he was guided by considerations of prescient statesmanship and a desire to restore religious liberty. Professor Sloane discards both of these theories because they leave out of account the "organic laws" supplementing the Concordat, with which Pope and Church had nothing to do. Here the First Consul legislated in direct contravention of canon law, and enacted rigid rules whereby the secular power was rendered supreme. "Determined to suppress alike the White and the Red Terror, . . . he aimed to restore the hierarchy in name and form; but in so doing he intended to make it subject to the secular power without reserve, keeping intact, as he wished ever to think, both the immemorial tradition of secular supremacy and the fundamental principle of the Revolution—absolute religious liberty and equality." Notwithstanding this general definition, Mr. Sloane admits that the French Liberals have some ground for regarding the Concordat as a reactionary measure, since it has permitted the rise of religious associations to great power, the decline of secular education, and the unification of all parties within the Roman Church.

While Professor Sloane's labors have been facilitated by the existence of such works as Robinet's 'Mouvement Religieux à Paris' and Gazier's 'Histoire Religieuse de la Révolution Française,' this volume represents original thought and investigation. Our opening remarks concerning the title call attention to what, if it be considered a fault, is but a slight one. On the whole, these lectures form an admirable monograph. They are thoroughly instructive and they prompt reflection. The only adverse criticism which we feel bound to make affects the manner of expression. Professor Sloane's style, though not at all obscure, is somewhat less rapid and incisive than we expect to find in historical writing of the highest class.

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*The Sacred Beetle:* A Popular Treatise on Egyptian Scarabs in Art and History. By John Ward, F.S.A. Five hundred examples of scarabs and cylinders; the translations by F. Llewellyn Griffith, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xvi, 122. 16 plates.

The author of 'The Sacred Beetle' is an amateur, but his book is a distinct contribution to a branch of a large subject of growing importance. It is dedicated to that indefatigable explorer, Prof. Flinders Petrie, whose words serve as a motto: "The distinction of the styles of scarabs is as much a special subject as the discrimination of the manner of painters, and as invisible to those who are unfamiliar with the study."

The book begins with an account of the scarab itself, and incidentally mention is made of a number of other subjects. While what is said is quite accurate in the main, some things might have been added without wearying the reader, and some might have been omitted without loss. The scarab or dung-beetle of Egypt became the symbol of "being," of continued "existence" and so of "immortality," possibly by reason of the popular myth which attributed to it the power of sexless self-propagation. Given form and significance, it afforded a double opportunity to the artist in stone, metal, or pottery, in the shape of the beetle itself with its fine details, and the smooth under surface which lent itself to inscriptions, mottoes, and fanciful designs. Mr. Ward has arranged his specimens chronologically as far as possible, using the royal names that frequently occur. The arrangement, of course, is not as plain in the case of those whose antiquity can be determined only by a process of comparison, or by a knowledge of their exact provenance. These are arranged by similarity of design or general likeness of pattern. Fortunately, the photographic method of reproduction has been adopted, thus giving the book a value which it could not otherwise have attained. A uniform greenish tint has been applied to all specimens alike, but this is hardly an unmixed good.

After the general account, follows a detailed description of the various specimens shown. Here the author has evidently been in a strait 'twixt two, whether to write for the reader who only possesses an uninstructed interest in the subject, or for the more advanced student who has no need of transliteration or translation. At times he has written for one, at times for the other. In the historical portion of the volume there are many illustrations in halftone, and many historical remarks showing the importance of a given king, the monuments which he left, or his relation to those who preceded or followed. These things are instructive and illuminating to the general reader particularly. Mr. Ward remarks the frequency of scarabs bearing the name of Thothmes III., supposing that it "became a watchword of religious supremacy, and so remained for many generations." This explanation, however, is quite insufficient. The name was written with three characters, *Ra-men-kheper*—the supreme solar deity; permanent; exist. When combined, these words form a prayer that Ra would grant permanent existence, a most appropriate petition or wish when applied to a mummy whose preservation intact in its tomb was a condition essential to the continued existence of the soul of the late departed. Scarabs thus engraved were used as amulets, and they are also found fastened to the foreheads of mummies. A specimen of the latter use may be found in one of the cases in the Metropolitan Museum, in this city.

Mr. Ward holds to the theory that the ancient Egyptian religion was "pure and simple," and that it "gradually degenerated into a species of polytheism." He holds that, "as the old faith waxed or waned," scarabs became plentiful or scarce, comparing their use to that of the cross among Christians. Exception must be taken to this, and to some of his historical statements, but for the most part, these have no connection with the principal subject in hand, and may be disregarded. The severest criticism must be aimed at the meagreness of the descriptive text in the latter part of the book, for this appeals to the lay reader, and for his benefit a glossary of terms might have been appended with advantage. The thanks of the expert need extend no further than the admirably executed plates, which present the objects almost as well and plainly as though they themselves were present in the round. Strangely enough, Mr. Ward gives no adequate reference to the widespread use of the design in other lands besides Egypt. Cyprus, for instance, has furnished many specimens of beautifully modelled beetles, cut from agate, chalcedony, rock crystal, and other hard substances, and engraved with designs more delicate and beautiful than any shown in this volume. These may be seen in the Cesnola collection of engraved gems exhibited in the gold room in the Metropolitan Museum. Some of them are of Egyptian workmanship, and show unadulterated purity of design. Others are Phœnician imitations; others still are Greek. In the course of time, all detail of form was lost, and the scarab became the scaraboid, and afterward was reduced to the oval convex bezel of the seal ring and even of the amulet.

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*Breaking and Riding*, with Military Commentaries, by Joseph Fillis. Translated by M. H. Hayes. Scribners. 1902.

Mr. Fillis, head riding-master of the Central Cavalry School at St. Petersburg, published, some ten years ago, his work entitled, 'Principes de Dressage et d'Équitation,' and the present translation is by Capt. M. H. Hayes, formerly of the British army, himself a prolific writer on the subject of the horse. The success which has attended Mr. Fillis's career makes his advice very valuable, and no horseman can peruse this work without a feeling of satisfaction. In all European countries riding-masters are provided for the cavalry service, but in the United States the same practice is followed in regard to the mounted branches as with the foot troops—that is, the best instruction possible is given to the young officers by their superiors, and the former are then required to instruct the men and supervise the training of the animals to be used. This does not result in the development of high-school horses. For all practical purposes, such a horse is not necessary; and while time devoted to such training is not thrown away, it is deemed best to limit it, in order that other and important things may be learned.

In the United States the ability to stick on a horse has often been rated as of greater importance than real horsemanship, but during recent years this view has changed quite generally, and riders as a class have learned that much more can be got out of the horse by accomplished horsemanship than by mere sticking on. Mr. Fillis sums up his views on this subject by saying that the chief good point about the rider is firmness of seat, which is obtained by correct position and practice. The rider should have not merely blind pluck, but self-confidence and coolness, without which he will not be able to utilize the useful things he has learned.

In preparing the horse for riding, Fillis uses some methods which differ from those of Baucher, who really is the father of modern high-school riding in France, though he did not, of course, originate all that he taught. Not enough attention has been paid in cavalry service generally to the employment of flexions in training horses. A horse that has had proper training in the bending lessons, which has been taught to stand quiet while being mounted, and to preserve his equilibrium with a rider upon his back, is valuable for all ordinary purposes. Of course, for jumping, both in hurdle-racing and in hunting, additional special care is necessary in selecting and training horses. Fillis's remarks upon the subject of jumping are well worth careful reading, since he demonstrates, what ought to be apparent to any sensible rider, that no general rule can be applied to all horses in teaching them to make difficult jumps. He especially urges that the natural stride of the horse be not hampered at the moment of taking-off by efforts to raise him with the bit for the jump. In order to jump successfully, a horse should have his head and neck quite free; the rider being prepared to sustain him at the moment of landing, should he stumble. It is quite certain that the average horse is better able to take his bearings and decide the distance over the obstacle, and the instant when he should take-off for the jump, than the rider can possibly be. The rider's hand should, of course, not lose touch with the horse's mouth while approaching the obstacle; but the horse should have his head while jumping. Not only should the rider's legs support the horse by pressing him forward to the jump, but the close contact should be maintained when passing over the obstacle, and particularly when landing, for it is at that instant that the forelegs receive their greatest strain, and should be relieved as much as possible from any jar.

In discussing the army horse, Fillis pleads for a reduction in the age limit to three and one-half years, upon the theory that at that time the horse is more supple and can be more easily educated than when five years old. The custom in the United States cavalry is, in time of peace, to buy horses from four to six years old, but in time of war no horses under six years of age are purchased for cavalry service. The reason for this is that the young horses are subject to influenza, commonly called "shipper's fever," which rapidly disables cavalry commands mounted upon young horses. It is perhaps not generally known that during the civil war the number of horses and mules in service averaged one to every two soldiers under arms, and that the losses averaged 500 per day. Under these conditions it was absolutely necessary to reduce the probable mortality by purchasing animals of such age as would assure them against the diseases which attack colts.

A letter under date of February 13, 1865, to Gen. Grant from Gen. Halleck, Chief of Staff, states that there were, on January 1, 1865, 105,434 cavalrymen present for duty, and that there were only 77,847 serviceable horses, although 154,400 had been purchased during the year, no less than 180,000 horses having been used up by the cavalry in that period. With these actual conditions attending active field service, it must be apparent that there is no time for high-school training of cavalry horses for real war. As a matter of fact, the number of horses that have been trained for high-school purposes is very small, Baucher and Fillis together having trained in a lifetime less than sixty horses.

There is much in Fillis's book of value to those who may, through inclination or duty, undertake the training of horses. It is a much easier matter for the trainer to omit some of the high-school lessons after acquiring a knowledge of them, than it is to originate ideas concerning the various elements which go to make up the trained horse.

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*The Discovery of the Solomon Islands by Alvaro de Mendaña in 1568.* Translated from the original Spanish manuscripts. London: Hakluyt Society. 1901. 2 vols., 8vo. Illustrations and maps.

The Solomon Islands have had a strange history. They were discovered in 1568 by some Spaniards who brought back a detailed account of their six months' exploration of eight islands which stretched in an almost unbroken line for 600 miles. On their return, ship after ship was sent out to revisit them, but so completely without success that, their very existence being doubted, they were expunged from the charts. Two centuries passed before a French navigator rediscovered them; and though they have been frequently visited since, they are still practically unexplored, the largest and the least-known of the island groups of the Pacific.

The story told by the original discoverers, now published for the first time as a whole and in English, by the Hakluyt Society, is also remarkable. The expedition, consisting of two small vessels manned by 150 sailors, soldiers, slaves, and four Franciscan friars, left Callao, November 19, 1567, to discover and make a settlement upon a rich continent supposed to be within easy sail of Peru. Eighty days later Isabel was reached, a boat was built, and six months were spent in explorations. Then, the natives having proved hostile, food being scarce, and most of the people being sick, "I assembled all the company," writes the leader Mendaña, "captains and soldiers as well as pilots and sailors, and asked them all without distinction what was best to be done, and whether we should make a settlement here or not." The majority of this "parliament," in which fifty-eight gave their opinion, voted to return, and four days later the homeward voyage began. Though both ships were dismasted and separated in a hurricane, they arrived at a California port within two days of each other, and returned in company to Callao, where they cast anchor July 26, 1569, having lost only thirty men.

The sources of information are six manuscript narratives of the commander and several of the officers, the fullest being that of the chief purser. These have been translated and edited by Lord Amherst of Hackney, with the aid of Mr. Basil Thomson, author of several works on the South Seas, who also has written the scholarly introduction. Mr. C. M. Woodford, H. M. Deputy Commissioner for the islands, and some others have contributed many valuable notes upon the native customs, and in identification of the places, mentioned in the narratives. These simple records of each day's incidents, in which the relations with the natives are described with great fulness of detail, show the Spaniards to have been courageous, humane, and sincerely pious. They had frequent conflicts with the natives, but at first the natives were invariably the aggressors, and all Mendaña's efforts to maintain friendly intercourse were unsuccessful. This treacherous character of the islanders is unchanged. Mr. Thomson says that men who have been long in contact with Europeans, "who have paraded the streets of Townsville and Suva [Fiji] almost foppishly clad, may be seen two months later on their native beach in Malaita, arrayed in a pandanus leaf, with rifle in hand, to shoot at the crew of a passing schooner." Cannibalism was the great barrier separating the two races. On one occasion a chief with a flotilla of fifteen large canoes came to the ships and sent a quarter of human flesh to Mendaña, evidently the highest honor he could pay him. A grave was immediately dug at the water's edge and the quarter buried in the chief's presence. "He regarded this very attentively, and, seeing that we set no value on the present, they all bent down over their canoes like men vexed or offended, and put off and withdrew with their heads bent down."

A comparison of these accounts with those of recent visitors reveals this remarkably suggestive fact that, as the na-

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tives were three centuries and a half ago, they are now, having neither progressed nor deteriorated. They are head-hunters, eat the bodies of the slain, use the same arms, build the same vessels, and wear the same ornaments. They had reached a stage of progress beyond that of any other of the Pacific islanders, as is shown by their graceful plank canoes, their elaborately built and decorated houses, and their sculpture, "correct even in anatomical detail"; and there they have stopped, furnishing another example, on a small scale, like that of China, of a people remaining stagnant.

Among the few passages difficult of explanation is one in which it is said that the expedition

"found some temples, and snakes, lizards, and scorpions in them, and in each one they found two or three *sabandijas* [? reptiles], which they keep in their nests in the wood of the temples, and they place food for them. We understood that they worshipped them; but our men also found them in their houses, near the spot where they made fire. They hung as many of these as they found on a stick, where the Indians could see them, and they sang at night, differently from other snakes (*culebras*), and like birds. One of them bit Francisco Garcia Tarifeno, a soldier, who put his foot upon it, but it did him no harm."

A missionary has seen the little green tree-frogs kept as pets in the houses of Isabel for the sake of their piping at night, and he himself has mistaken their note for the call of a night bird. They are also tied to sticks by the leg, but they do not bite, and it is difficult to see how they could be compared with snakes. An interesting illustration of the childlike faith of the explorers is that they attributed their discovery of a port to the intercession "of the three Magi, who had ever been our advocates," says Mendaña. "For at about ten o'clock in the morning, after we had put out to sea, and just as we were reëntering the shallow water, we saw above the middle of the maintopsail a resplendent star, which we took to be a guide sent to us by them to show us the passage through the shallows. . . . I called the port Bahia de la Estrella (Bay of the Star)."

A number of photographs, facsimiles of manuscripts, and maps add to the value of this most interesting narrative of a voyage, "remarkable even in a century famous for maritime discovery."

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*Philip Freneau, the Poet of the Revolution:* A History of his Life and Times, by Mary S. Austin. Edited by Helen Kearny Vreeland, great-granddaughter of the poet. New York: Wessels.

It is now more than half a century since Charles Fenno Hoffman, then conspicuous among New York literary men, wrote thus to Rufus Griswold, in regard to Philip Freneau, Griswold having just published his 'Poets of America':

"Do you know, I think you missed it in not giving him [Freneau] more room; that piece, 'His blanket, tied with yellow strings,' etc., should have been in. There is more of nature and poetry about him than in all the Yankees that follow till you come to Hillhouse. Dwight, Barlow, etc., were men of great intellectual vigor, but their poetry was an exercise of mental ingenuity merely. Freneau, if half an idiot, would still have had more poetry in the other half than could have been squeezed out of all the others boiled down to a consommé." (Griswold, Correspondence, p 185.)

This terse verdict has been, on the whole, confirmed by time; since we must remember that the Dana-Bryant-Percival period came after the years when Hillhouse was in his youthful glory; he having been born in 1789. The fuller editing and criticism of Freneau is therefore eminently appropriate, although the book before us is perhaps too large, as is certainly the case with the style and epithets of its editors.

It is perhaps unfortunate for the memory of Freneau that the author or authors of this bulky volume should have felt bound to make it a history of his times as well as of his life. When we reflect on the hundred thousand or more books which have grappled with that period, and the very few which have had much to say of this man, it would seem quite time for the man to take his turn, and not to be still further submerged, as in this particular book. Freneau, whatever his limitations, may now be justly regarded as the pioneer American poet, and it is a pity that he should not have been treated biographically, instead of merely glancing in and out upon the stage, as occasion serves. When we consider that the first four chapters, including sixty-eight pages, are occupied with events which took place before he was born, it is hard not to be reminded of that memorable autobiography of the French George Sand, in which it requires three volumes—if we remember rightly—to bring us to the birth of the narrator's grandmother.

After the beginning of chapter five, in the present work, we really have a great deal about the poet himself, though seldom systematically arranged, and often encumbered with more general matters. The authors show themselves unaccustomed to literary work and not abounding in literary knowledge. It seems almost incredible, indeed, that a song so well knewn as George Stevens's

"Cease, rude Boreas, blustering railer!
List, ye landsmen, all to me,"

should have been assumed to be by Freneau, and regarded as hitherto unpublished, simply because he had transcribed it in pencil. The authors have, however, brought out, with much fidelity, the remarkable compliments paid to Freneau by Scott and Campbell, when each borrowed unquestionably for his own verse a line from the American poet. The line taken by Campbell was from the striking imaginative picture in "The Indian's Burying-Ground," where Freneau writes:

"By midnight moons, o'er moist'ning dews,
In vestments for the chase array'd,
The hunter still the deer pursues,
The hunter and the deer—a shade."

Campbell transfers the last line, less effectively, in his "O'Connor's Child":

"Now on the grass-green turf he sits,
His tassell'd horn beside him laid;
Now o'er the hills in chase he flits,
The hunter and the deer a shade."

Again, Scott uses in his introduction to the third canto of "Marmion," where he has the lines,

"And Prussia hurried to the field,
And snatched the spear but left the shield,"

another extract from Freneau, who had written, in a poem on the "Heroes of Eutaw":

"They rushed to meet the insulting foe,
They took the spear—but left the shield."

In this case, while we have no direct recognition of the borrowing, it is known that Scott had met with the "Eutaw" poem in a magazine, that he knew it by heart, and pronounced it to be "as fine a thing of the kind as there is in the language" (p. 220).

These little literary honors counted for much at that nascent period of our literature; and everything goes to show that Freneau was a man of absolutely simple nature, though often over-vehement, irascible, and a partisan by temperament. The highest point reached by him in his varied career was the moment when, after a life of habitual distrust and disapproval of slavery, he emancipated his own slaves, some time before his death, and continued to support the aged and infirm among them; all this happening some time before the passage of an Emancipation Act by his own State, New Jersey (p. 195).

Freneau died a picturesque and tragic death at the age of eighty, he being on his way home from a political meeting and being caught in a sudden snowsquall, which hid from view the light that his wife always placed in the window for him; he fell in the snow, broke his hip, and was found dead. He was, on his father's side, a French Huguenot, and his leadership, in respect to time at least, among American poets, recalls the remark of Mrs. Frances Kemble Butler, who pointed out that, so great and rapid had already been the mixture of blood in this nation, the future American must not be viewed as merely a transplanted Englishman, but as a new type to be classed somewhere between Englishman and Frenchman.

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*Folk-Tales of Napoleon.* Translated, with Introduction, by George Kennan. New York: The Outlook Company. 1902.

The two folk-tales contained in this slender volume might fitly be issued by the Peace Society as a tract against war. Of the second, "The Napoleon of the People," little need be said. It is already more or less familiar to the public in its original place, Balzac's 'The Country Doctor,' and, while it is good and sufficiently suggestive in its way, it pales into insignificance by the side of the first story, "Napoleonder." The latter is a fine specimen of the wit, wisdom, and peaceful tendencies of the Russian people as a mass. In its present literary form it is the production of Alexander Amphiteatroff, and was published in a St. Petersburg newspaper at the end of 1901. But it is obvious to any one who is acquainted with the legendary and poetic talents and style of the Russian peasants, that Mr. Amphiteatroff has done little except act as a faithful mouthpiece. The general idea set forth is, that the Emperor Napoleon I., with whose campaign in Russia in 1812 the legend chiefly deals, was created by the devil, accidentally endowed with a soul by God, and then used by the latter as an instrument wherewith to chastise the peoples of the earth for their wickedness. But the pith of the idea, that which renders this simple folk-tale more powerful as a peace sermon than any scientific argument or philippic volumes long against war, is, that Napoleon conquered purely by virtue of the fact that he felt no pity. The moment a sentiment of pity entered his heart he was overthrown. The phantom hosts—his dead troops, who rallied again and again

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to his standard, from their graves, at his call of "Bonaparty!"—ceased to respond when "Ivan-angel," in the guise of a mortally wounded young Russian soldier, asked the Conqueror: "Tell me, please, what have you killed me for?" and so set in motion a train of thought which speedily softened the heart of stone. The young soldier's arguments on the subject of war in general could not be improved upon.

We commend the little story to the attention of both the warlike and the peacefully inclined who have not had the good fortune to make acquaintance with it in the pages of the *Outlook*. The translation is as racy as the original, and that is the highest compliment which can be paid. The sole defect is a lack of footnotes. For students of folk-lore, they would have been especially valuable. There are exceedingly curious traces of the Epic Songs (which are famous for having been handed down for hundreds of years by word of mouth only), intermingled with historical facts in the most telling manner. For example: Napoleon is said, in epic style, to have "desolated the whole Mohammedan kingdom" before he finally marches on a Christian country, Holy Russia. An amusing touch is the reason assigned for Alexander I. being called "the Blessed"—because he now "stands on the top of the column in Petersburg-town, and blesses the people with a cross"; the fact being that the figure on the Alexander column in the Winter Palace Square is an angel. The Emperor Alexander is then represented as leading his army to "the field of Kulikova," where he waited for "the miscreant Napoleonder," and a battle ensued. The Russian army then flees "from Kulikova-field to Pultava-field; from Pultava-field to the famous still-water Don; and from the peaceful Don to the field of Borodino, under the very walls of Mother Moscow." As in an earlier reference to "the great fighter, Anika," of the "Cycle of the Elder Heroes" and "the island of Buan, in the middle of the ocean-sea," "Kulikova-field" (which reappears, under another title, in "the peaceful Don") is an echo of the "imperial or Moscow Cycle" of the Epic Songs, and refers to the famous battle fought in 1370, which broke the Tatar dominion; while "Pultava-field" represents the famous battle between Charles XII. of Sweden and Peter I. in 1709; and the field of Borodino is far from being in the immediate neighborhood of Moscow. All three were fateful battles for Russia, as each annihilated a foreign Power, and the combination is capital. The statement, also, that Tsar Alexander had Napoleon put into an iron cage, and carried round and exhibited to the people at country fairs for the space of thirty years, is derived from the legends and epic ballads about the popular kazak brigand, Stenko Razin, who was executed in 1671, and of Pugatcheff, the pretended Peter III., about a century later.

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*Studies in Physiological Chemistry*, Sheffield Scientific School. Edited by R. H. Chittenden. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 8vo, pp. 424.

*Qualitative Chemical Analysis.* By Albert B. Prescott and Otis C. Johnson. 5th ed. entirely rewritten. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 420.

*Victor von Richter's Organic Chemistry.* Edited by R. Anschütz. Translated by Edgar F. Smith. 3d American from 8th German ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 625, 671.

*The Elements of Physical Chemistry.* By Harry C. Jones. Macmillan Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 565.

Our readers would be far from curious to see minute dissections of technical books performed before their eyes. The volume from the Laboratory of Physiological Chemistry of the Sheffield Scientific School contains some two dozen experimental researches into different points of that science, well sustaining the high character of their home. They are preceded by an interesting catalogue of all the publications of the Laboratory since its institution in 1875.

The 'Qualitative Analysis' of Profs. Prescott and Johnson is a handbook every way modern, distinguished by its completeness. An introduction of 26 pages sets forth concisely the principles of the art, including sections on dissociation, the periodic system, etc. All the rare metals, excepting only such things as Polonium and Radium, are included; and the selection of acids treated is large. The authors, it is plain to see, have searched the "literature" of the subject exhaustively, and have not neglected experimental verification, wherever it was possible. Sufficient details are given as to precautions to be observed, and there are useful explanations of why peculiar phenomena are as they are. Earlier editions are well known, but this present work is largely new and a great improvement. In every respect, it will be most serviceable, especially to the accomplished chemist.

Von Richter's 'Organic Chemistry' has been so often rewritten that one might begin to fear effects of new wine in old bottles. Nothing of the sort appears. With what ingenuity a vast ocean of facts is packed away into these few, thirteen hundred pages, can be learned only by personal inspection. The digest is so uniform that one knows precisely what one may expect to find and where to look for it. The exposition is so luminous that a student who has once acquired the chemical memory can, with a reasonable amount of study, bring away all the outlines and many of the details. The first volume is chiefly given over to the fat-allied bodies; but, after they have been treated, room remains in the same volume for the carbohydrates, the albuminoids, and all that is beyond the ken of chemical theory to-day. That leaves the second volume for bodies of so-called cyclical constitution exclusively. This second volume carries authority as to fact beyond what one would have a right to demand of a compilation. Not only has it been executed with great *general* chemical judgment, but special parts have been revised by men specially acquainted with special groups of substances. The German editor's skill in exposition gains in this second volume, too; and the American translator manipulates his own language with more accomplished neatness. This work may be recommended as quite the most suitable that exists for almost every person who may desire to undertake almost any kind of study of organic chemistry. Common sense will set certain limits to this statement; and there are no others. If every person whom the description fits were provided with a copy of these volumes, the sales would run up into quite modern numbers.

As to the subject of Professor Jones's book, one can go further. Every man of education would like to know something of organic chemistry; but every such man needs to know the principles of physical chemistry in about the measure in which Professor Jones's volume sets them forth. There are really two departments of science which join hands in this volume; first, the new Physical Chemistry, which takes account of the time of reaction, of dissociation, of the influence of mass; second, that somewhat ill-defined congeries of studies which used to be called Chemical Physics. Why should not these two phrases be allowed to stand, each in the peculiar sense in which it is usually employed? The newer subject captivates by its unexpected and prompt explanations of most important facts for which one had not seen any reason. It looms large from the viewpoint of to-day's science. Professor Jones's exposition of this branch is in almost every point excellent, and in the most important parts is everywhere more than excellent—often admirable. The older subject, the knowledge of which is fully as valuable, although at the present time it is not so active a factor in the metabolism of science, evidently does not interest the author so keenly. This is unfortunate, because this division is naturally placed first, and among the students of this work there will be some who, though somewhat at sea in chemistry, have pretty distinct and tolerably accurate notions of what good logic is and what bad. If a Clerk Maxwell could have been found to perform this more perfunctory part of Professor Jones's task, what a masterpiece might the two have made of it!

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*Tribal Custom in Anglo-Saxon Law:* Being an Essay Supplemental to (1) 'The English Village Community,' (2) 'The Tribal System in Wales.' By Frederic Seebohm. Longmans. 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi, 538.

In this volume Mr. Seebohm tries to throw light on the division of classes in Anglo-Saxon society and the character of their holdings by investigating the subject from the point of view of tribal custom, whereas in his 'English Village Community' his chief purpose was to trace the origin of the manorial system by a careful study of the open-field system of agriculture. His main clue to an understanding of the division of classes is the amount of the wergelds or death-fines which were paid in lieu of the feud between kindreds, and his treatment of this subject leads to some long digressions concerning the currencies in which the death-fines were paid. He concludes "that there was a general correspondence in the amount of the wergelds tenaciously adhered to by the tribes of Western Europe, whether remaining in their old homes or settled in newly conquered countries." About half of the book is occupied with an examination of the tribal customs and monetary systems of the Welsh, Irish, Scots, Scandinavians, Burgundians, Visigoths, Franks, Saxons, and other Germanic tribes, so that the work might properly have been called 'Tribal Custom in the Early Laws of Western Europe.' The comparative method of historical study, when applied to early institutions, requires

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much laborious research, and has been employed by Mr. Seebohm with more success in some chapters than in others. For example, it is difficult to follow or accept his new explanation of the terms twelve-hynde and twy-hynde men; but by investigating the evidence of the Norse laws regarding the wergelds of the leysings he is able to give a plausible explanation of the status of the Kentish laets, whose position in society has always been obscure. He deserves much credit for his courage in undertaking the arduous task of bringing the Continental evidence in line with the Anglo-Saxon; and if his example is imitated by others, we may hope for a better knowledge of early English institutions.

It is difficult briefly to formulate the new results reached by Mr. Seebohm. He throws some new light on various questions concerning the wergeld system, the bond of kindred, and classes of society; but, though the Anglo-Saxon nobility is one of his main themes of discussion, he has not cleared away the darkness surrounding the meaning of the terms eorl, gesith, and thegn, and some of his statements regarding them are perplexing. For example, he tells us that the gesith in Ine's time was the twelve-hynde man, and belonged to a class lower than the thegns (pp. 410, 417), and yet he does not question the chapters of the so-called Laws of Henry I. which equate the thegn with the twelve-hynde man (pp. 325, 328). Then, too, some of his conclusions are based on his questionable dating of fragments of Anglo-Saxon law, notably the 'De Institutis Lundonie,' the 'North People's Law,' and the 'Northumbrian Priest-Law' (pp. 340-43, 364, 399). The fact that the Danish ore of sixteen pence is found in the Domesday Survey, as well as in the 'De Institutis Lundonie,' might be used as an argument against his assumption that this fragmentary collection should be assigned to the reign of Cnut, and in favor of Höhlbaum's contention ('Hansisches Urkundenbuch,' iii., 379) that it belongs to the period immediately following the Norman Conquest. Finally, in dealing with the wealth class (pp. 402-4) our author overlooks Liebermann's essay on the Ordinance concerning the Dunsetas, in *Archiv für das Studium der Neueren Sprachen*, 1899, volume cii.

The discussion of the classes of society naturally leads to some consideration of manorial development, and it soon becomes evident that Mr. Seebohm has modified his well-known theory that the English manor was a survival from Roman times. He now believes that the Anglo-Saxon settlers brought with them from the Continent traditions of tribal or family ownership; "and tribal custom left to itself would give to them landed rights quite different from those of the individual owner." The law of tribal gravitation tended to place the ceorls with an imperfect kindred in a dependent position at the bottom of the social ladder; they became dependent on the landholders (gesiths or twelve-hynde men), whose separation from their kinsmen in the period of conquest and settlement brought them in closer relations with the king. The ceorls paid gafol and did service to the landholders, and these paid gafol and did service to the king. Seebohm thus accepts Maitland's definition of the manor as "the fiscal unit from which gafol is paid directly to the king, while its lord is the receiver of the payments and services of its tenants." Moreover, he asserts that manorial jurisdiction "may have grown from the root of the tribal principle involved in the sacredness of the precinct or area of protection of the chieftain and, in degree, of every grade of tribesman who possessed a homestead." The importance which he ascribes to the tribal element necessitates a modification of the theory set forth in his 'English Village Community' that the Anglo-Saxon manor was directly derived from the Roman *villa*, and that English history "begins with the serfdom of the masses of the rural population under Saxon rule." He still believes, however, that Roman methods of land management exerted considerable influence, especially in establishing uniformity of holdings on manorial estates, and he is inclined to push back the serfdom of the masses to a period at least as early as the reign of Ine.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Stronger than Love. Brentano's. $1.50.
Anderson, G. L. Handbook for the Use of Electricians, in the Operation and Care of Electrical Machinery, and Apparatus of the U. S. Coast Defences. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Annales Internationales d'Histoire: Congrès de Paris. 1900. I. Histoire Générale et Diplomatique. II. Histoire Comparée des Institutions et du Droit. III. Histoire Comparée de l' Economie Sociale. IV. Histoire des Affaires Religieuses. V. Histoire des Sciences. VI. Histoire Comparée des Littératures. VII. Histoire des Arts du Dessin. Paris: Armand Colin. 35 francs.
Babbitt, F. C. A Grammar of Attic and Ionic Greek. American Book Co. $1.50.
Baskett, J. N., and Ditmars, R. L. The Story of the Amphibians and the Reptiles. D. Appleton & Co. 60 cents.
Bicknell, P. C. Guide Book of the Grand Canyon of Arizona. Kansas City: Fred Harvey.
Blanden, C. G. A Drift of Song. Evanston (Ill.). William S. Lord. 50 cents.
Blatchford, Robert. Britain for the British. London: Clarion Press; Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Bloch, I. S. The Future of War. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bréal, Auguste. Rembrandt: A Critical Essay. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Broome, Isaac. The Last Days of the Ruskin Co-operative Association. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Bryce, James. The Relations of the Advanced and the Backward Races of Mankind. Henry Frowde.
Clark, S. H. Handbook of Best Readings. Scribners. $1.50.
Crosland, T. W. H. The Unspeakable Scot. London: Grant Richards; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Crowest, F. J. The Story of the Art of Music. D. Appleton & Co. 35 cents.
Denton, Daniel. A Brief Description of New York. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.
Doty, A. H. A Manual of Instruction in the Principles of Prompt Aid to the Injured. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Edmunds, A. J. Hymns of the Faith (Dhammapada): Being an Ancient Anthology Preserved in the Short Collection of the Sacred Scriptures of the Buddhists. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co.
Findlay, Jessie P. The Spindle Side of Scottish Song. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gottsberger, Francis. Accountant's Guide. George G. Peck.
Green, Evelyn E. Princess Fairstar. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hinds, W. A. American Communities. Rev. ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
History of the Expedition under the Command of Captains Lewis and Clark to the Sources of the Mississippi, across the Rocky Mountains, down the Columbia River to the Pacific in 1804-6: A Reprint. 3 vols. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Hopkins, J. C. Morang's Annual Register of Canadian Affairs. 1901. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co.
Hopkins, S. A. The Care of the Teeth. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hundert Meister der Gegenwart in farbiger Wiedergabe. Part I. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Johnson, Virginia W. A World's Shrine. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Juraschek, Fr. von. Geographisch-Statistische Tabellen aller Länder der Erde, 1902. Frankfort: Heinrich Keller; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lewis, J. A. Sir Walter of Kent. Bonnell, Silver & Co.
Merejkowski, Dimitri. The Romance of Leonardo da Vinci. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Millard, Bailey. Songs of the Press, and Other Adventures in Verse. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.
Myers, A. C. Immigration of the Irish Quakers into Pennsylvania, 1682-1750. Swarthmore (Penn.): Published by the author.
Nyrop, Christopher. The Kiss and its History. (Translated by W. F. Harvey.) London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Oliver, Thomas. Dangerous Trades. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $8.
Plummer, Charles. The Life and Times of Alfred the Great. (Ford Lectures for 1901.) Henry Frowde. $1.75.
Political X-Rays, by an Internationalist. Paris: Charles Eitel.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society: Second Series. Vol. XV. Boston: Published by the Society.
Rae, W. F. Sheridan's Plays. London: David Nutt. 10s. 6d.
Raoul-Duval, Roger. Au Transvaal et dans le Sud Africain avec les Attachés Militaires. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.
Smith, Eugene. The Home Aquarium, and How to Care for It. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.20.
Stokes, A. P. Cruising in the West Indies. Dodd, Mead & Co.
The Living Age, Seventh Series, vol. xv. Boston: The Living Age Co.
Tileston, Merrill. Chiquita. Chicago: The Merrill Co.
Transactions of the Kansas State Historical Society, 1901-1902. Topeka: Kansas State Historical Society.
Trask, R. D. Human Knowledge and Human Conduct. Published by the Author.
Walker, A. H. A Primer of Greek Constitutional History. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
Wentworth, G. A. A College Algebra. Rev. ed. Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Williams, M. B. The Strategy of Nature. London: R. B. Johnson.

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